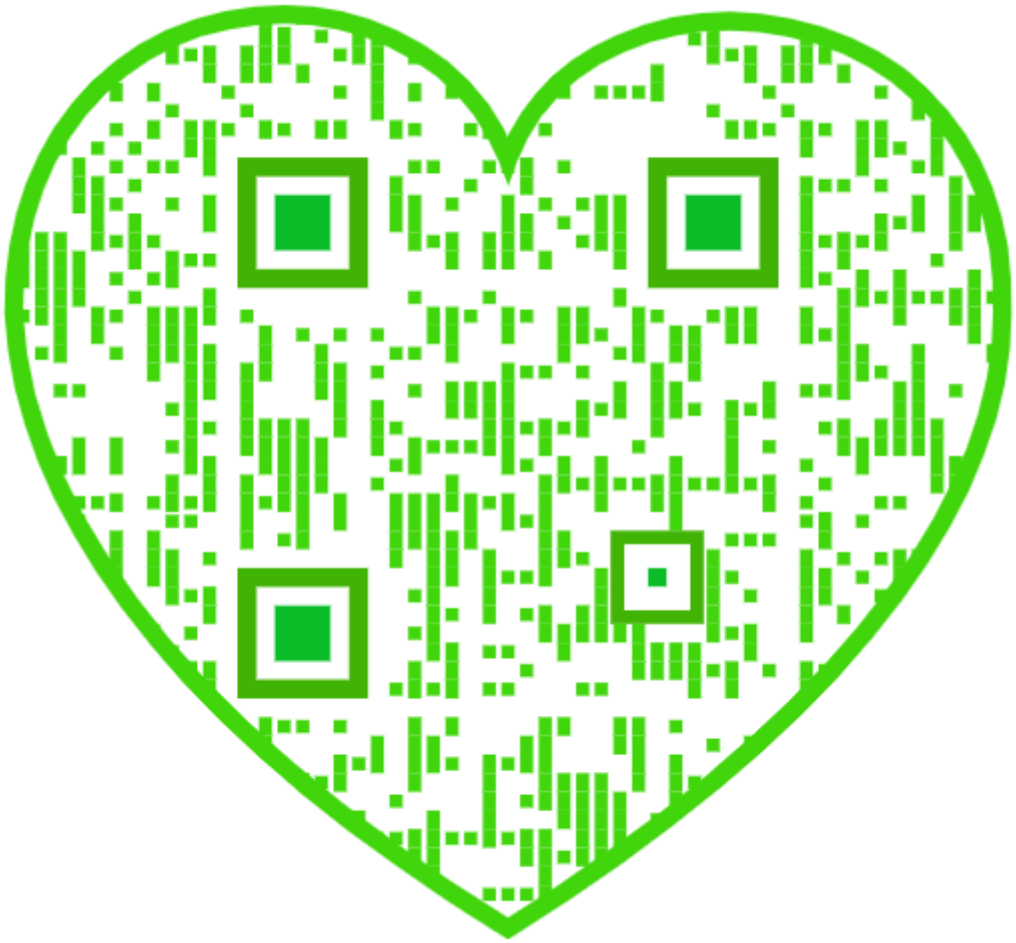
NILES'
SCHOOL HISTORY
OF THE
UNITED STATES



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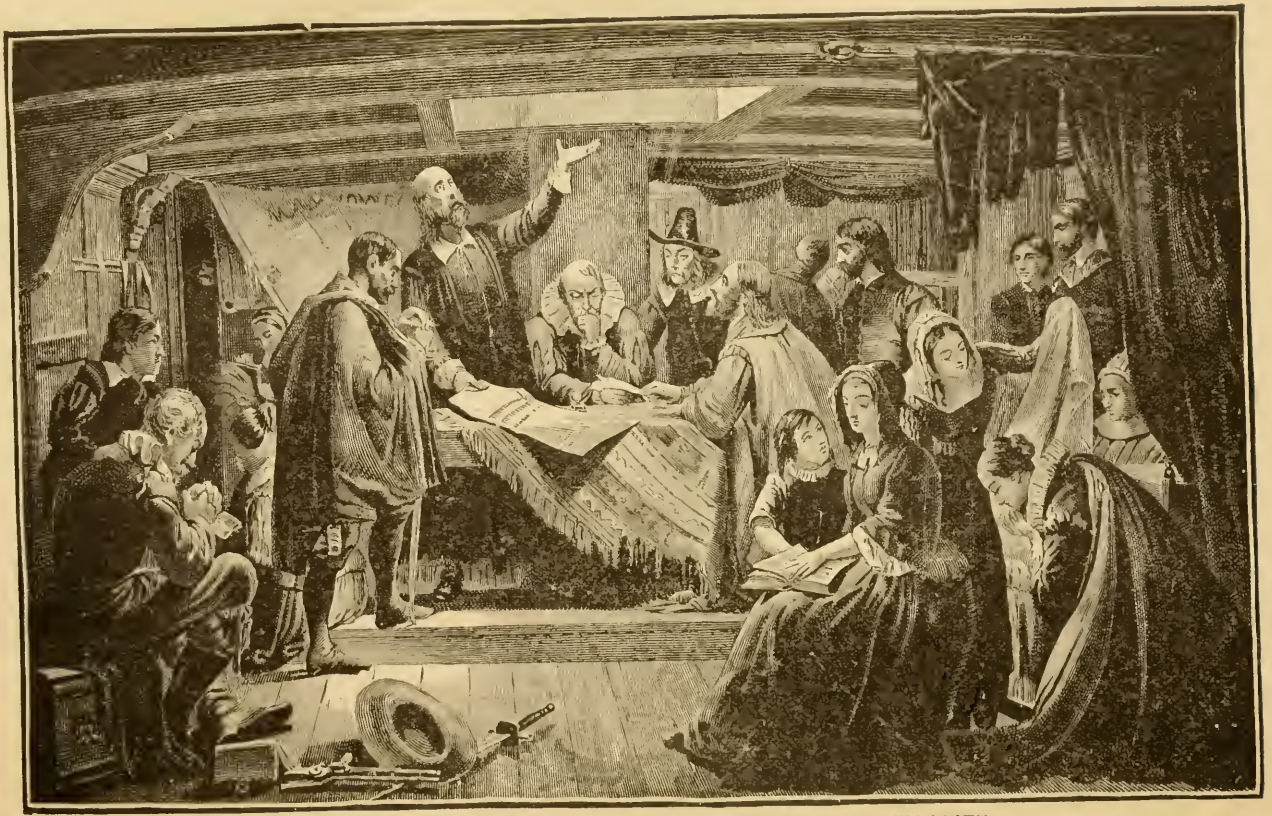

SIGNING THE COMPACT IN THE CABIN OF THE MAYFLOWER

Son of Gov. Carver. Mrs. Bradford. Elder Brewster. Edward Winslow. Mrs. Winslow. John Howland.
Samuel Fuller. Miles Standish Gov. Carver. Wm. Bradford Rose Standish. Mrs. White.

NILES'S

SCHOOL HISTORY

OF THE

UNITED STATES

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PREFACE.

In the preparation of this volume, my aim has been to include only those events which should be known to every citizen, together with such other matter as might have a tendency to deepen impressions, to broaden the view, or add to the interest. I have tried to make all statements clear and accurate; to treat the subject in such a manner as will leave the student with an abiding thirst for wider historical reading.

So far as seemed possible, in a work of this grade, the relation of cause and effect has been kept in view, and it is believed that all who carefully study these pages will see that history is made up of related events. In speaking of the measures of political parties, and other organizations, I have endeavored to lift myself above prejudice; to give plain, uncolored statements.

Some space has been given to the men who dwelt here before us, but much more to the every-day life of our own people, in different sections of our country, and at different periods of our history. The great inventions of the last hundred years have been noticed, and their marvelous influence more fully traced than is usual in works of this class; and care has been taken to convey the idea that the bloodless triumphs of peace are really as much a part of our country's history as are the triumphs of war.

To awaken the spirit of patriotism is regarded as one of the ends to be reached in the study of history. Keeping this fact in view, the stirring words of our great poets have been introduced, to supplement or round out the stories of patriotism told in simple prose. The heroes of the home, the hospital, the flood, and the field, men and women alike, have been placed side by side—bright examples for the young to follow.

It is believed that the use of the topics prepared for recitations and reviews, the test questions and exercises near the close of the book, will lead to the best results. Such a method of study and work as is here outlined places the pupil in the proper mental attitude, trains to self-reliance, gives a clear understanding of the subject, and a good command of language.

SANFORD NILES.

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E-P 4

171

HINTS TO TEACHERS.

How to Prepare the Lesson.—Pupils should be taught to think as they read; to get ideas from the printed page; to see the things spoken of in the text. For instance, if Lesson I. is to be prepared, the pupil, as he reads, should see the indented coast of Norway; the Northmen, in their strange little ships, speeding over the sea to Iceland; the ship of Biorn driven before the gale; the low, wooded coast; the settlers in Greenland eagerly listening to Biorn's tale; Leif setting forth to find the land Biorn had seen; Vinland, with its forests and vines; the little settlement of Northmen, and also the canals, walls, and other remains. When these mental pictures are clearly defined, and can be recalled in their proper order, the pupil has taken the most important step in the preparation of his lesson, although he may not be able to repeat a line of the text. He has been getting ideas, not words, and this should be his first task whenever he attempts to prepare a lesson in history. He should next think of the words he will use to express his ideas. To tell what he has learned in the best way must be his aim—his study. When he can do this, he is prepared for the recitation.

The Recitation.—For the convenience of teachers, the topics treated in each chapter have been grouped at its close. They may be written on the board or read from the book. When a topic is named, the pupil should be able to tell, in his own words, what he has learned under that head, from the text-book and from other sources. His recitation should be a reproduction, in his own, best language, of the ideas gained by study. Questions designed to stimulate thought are always in order, and should be freely used (*See page 287*). Questions which serve only to remind the pupil of the words of the book, which tend to make his recitation mere parrot-work, should be avoided.

Geography and History.—Geography and history go hand in hand. Geographical conditions often lie at the very foundation of history, and they should be studied by advanced classes. Why were the early settlements on or near navigable waters? Why did slavery become profitable in the South? Why are the people of the Mississippi Valley largely engaged in grain-growing and stock-raising? Why does life in the Rocky Mountain region differ from life in New England? Why did the French find their way into the Mississippi Valley? Questions like these will help even ordinary pupils to see how occupations, modes of living, the state of society, and even the laws of a people are largely determined by the conditions which physical geography imposes.

Maps and Sketching.—The lesson should be studied with the proper map before the pupil for easy and frequent reference. The large maps in an

advanced geography may sometimes prove more satisfactory than the small maps in a school history. Outline maps drawn on strong paper, to be filled in by pupils from day to day as the work advances, may be had at trifling cost, and are of great service. Maps indicating the routes of explorers, showing where early settlements were made, giving the boundaries of territorial acquisitions, illustrating military campaigns, etc., should be sketched by pupils while the recitation is in progress.

Topical Reviews.—Pupils should be able to say something of each of the historic characters, and the historic places named in the lists prepared for topical reviews. When the general topics are reached, they should place on the board something like the following:

SKELETON SUMMARY.

* *The New Republic and Its People.*

- *Population and territory.*
- *Cities and villages.*
- *How the people traveled.*
- *Farm life.*
- *Mails and newspapers.*
- *Schools and school-masters.*
- *Lights and fuel.*
- *How the people dressed.*
- *Slavery in the states.*

With this blackboard analysis before the class, the topics may be taken in order, the pupils telling what they have learned in the best language they can command. It may sometimes be found best to require one pupil to go over the entire chapter, another pupil taking the next, and so on.

The Open-Book Method.—In some cases it will be a good plan to go over the history, chapter by chapter, with the open book in the hands of the class. The several paragraphs of the chapter or lesson assigned may be read aloud by pupils, who should be made to feel entirely free to ask questions; to relate what they have learned by reading in other books, papers, or magazines; to converse about points of special interest that may come up. This plan will enable teachers to see that different words are correctly pronounced; that pupils know the meaning of words and expressions used in the text; that they refer to the map whenever such reference seems necessary. Teachers should also direct pupils to other sources of information, test them by well-conceived questions, and give the class many interesting facts gleaned in their wider reading. In this way they may make the subject broader and deeper than they find it in any school text-book, limited, as it must be, in size and cost. On no account should the open-book method be allowed to degenerate into a mere reading lesson, without note or comment. The teacher who is full of his subject—a never-failing fountain of inspiration to his class—will certainly succeed in making this method a grand success.

* See Chapter XXV., page 135.

CONTENTS.

Chapter.		*Page.*
I.	A Legend of the Northmen,	9
II.	The Story of Columbus,	11
III.	Other Discoverers and Explorers,	18
IV.	The Men Who Dwelt Here Before Us,	26
V.	Claims of Different Nations—Settlements,	34
VI.	How Virginia Was Settled,	36
VII.	How the People Lived,	43
VIII.	Settlement of New York,	46
IX.	Life in New Amsterdam,	49
X.	The New England Colonies,	52
XI.	Other Events in New England,	62
XII.	Early Days in New England,	66
XIII.	New Jersey and the Quakers,	71
XIV.	William Penn and His Colony,	74
XV.	Delaware, or New Sweden—Maryland,	77
XVI.	The Carolinas and Georgia,	80
XVII.	The French in America,	85
XVIII.	Three Indian Wars,	88
XIX.	The French and Indian War,	92
XX.	Causes of the Revolution,	99
XXI.	The Beginning of the War,	105
XXII.	The Declaration of Independence,	110
XXIII.	From Brandywine to Germantown,	117
XXIV.	Articles of Confederation—The Constitution,	127
XXV.	The New Republic and Its People,	135
XXVI.	Washington's Administration—1789-1797,	141
XXVII.	John Adams' Administration—1797-1801,	146
XXVIII.	Jefferson's Administration—1801-1809,	148
XXIX.	Madison's Administration—1809-1817,	154
XXX.	Settling the Great Valley,	163
XXXI.	Monroe's Administration—1817-1825,	166
XXXII.	John Quincy Adams' Administration—1825-1829,	171
XXXIII.	Andrew Jackson's Administration—1829-1837,	174

Chapter.		*Page.*
XXXIV.	Van Buren's Administration 1837-1841,	183
XXXV.	Harrison and Tyler's Administration—1841-1845,	186
XXXVI.	Polk's Administration—1845-1849,	189
XXXVII.	Taylor and Fillmore's Administration—1849-1853,	194
XXXVIII.	Pierce's Administration—1853-1857,	196
XXXIX.	Buchanan's Administration—1857-1861,	197
XL.	Lincoln's Administration—1861-1865,	205
XLI.	Events of 1862,	217
XLII.	Events of 1863,	227
XLIII.	Events of 1864,	235
XLIV.	Events of 1865,	242
XLV.	Other Matters Relating to the War,	246
XLVI.	Johnson's Administration—1865-1869,	255
XLVII.	Grant's Administration—1869-1877,	259
XLVIII.	Hayes' Administration—1877-1881,	263
XLIX.	Garfield and Arthur's Administration—1881-1885,	265
L.	Cleveland's First Administration—1885-1889,	267
LI.	Harrison's Administration—1889-1893,	271
LII.	Cleveland's Second Administration—1893-1897,	275
LIII.	McKinley's Administration—1897—	276
LIV.	Growth of the Country,	278

LIST OF MAPS.

1.	The Known World when Columbus Sailed,	12
2.	Illustrating Atlantic Discoveries,	24
3.	Indian Families and Tribes,	27
4.	Early Colonial Settlements,	39
5.	Claims of Different Nations,	87
6.	French and Indian Wars,	94
7.	Map Illustrating the Revolutionary War,	106
8.	Territorial Claims at Close of Revolution,	136
9.	Territorial Acquisitions of the United States,	150
10.	War of 1812—Lake Erie, etc.,	155
11.	War of 1812—Niagara River, etc.,	158
12.	War of 1812—Lake Champlain,	159
13.	General Map of Mexican War,	190
14.	Map of Seceding States,	201
15.	Movements of the Army of the Potomac,	214
16.	Movements of the Armies in the South and West,	216

NILES'S

School History of the United States.

PART FIRST.

EARLY DISCOVERIES AND EXPLORATIONS.

CHAPTER I.

A LEGEND OF THE NORTHMEN.

A NORTHMAN SHIP.

Long ago, the people of Norway, Sweden, and Denmark, then called Northmen, were known as skillful and daring seamen. In their strange little ships, urged along by sails and oars, they visited all the coasts of Europe, and often ventured far out upon the trackless ocean where the sailors of other lands had not been. Nearly a thousand years ago, Iceland was discovered and settled by Northmen, who went forth from the bays and fiords (*fi ords'*) of Norway, and from Iceland a colony was sent to Greenland.

Biorn and Leif the Lucky.—Among many legends of the Northmen, there is one that relates to Biorn (*be ern'*), and to Leif (*life*) the Lucky, a son of Eric the Red, the first settler of Greenland. In sailing from Iceland to

Greenland in search of his father, Biorn was driven to the southwest in a storm, until he came in sight of a low country covered with trees. Reaching Greenland at last, Biorn told his story to the settlers. Leif then fitted out a vessel and sailed, with thirty-five men, to find this strange land. They finally came to a well-wooded coast where grapes and other wild fruits grew. The grapes were so abundant that Leif named the country Vinland. The winter was spent on the bank of a small lake, near the source of a river, and the weather seemed to them very warm and pleasant. This was about the year 1000. The relatives of Leif made other voyages to explore the country, and a colony was finally planted in Vinland, which, we are told, prospered for many years.

Where was Vinland?—Much more of the same sort is found in the legends of the Northmen, and we may well suppose that they were the discoverers of America, the first white settlers of the New World; but as no certain traces of their settlement are known to remain, we may never find out whether their fair land of vines was Nova Scotia, Rhode Island, or some other region.

In the basin of the Charles River, not far from Boston, ancient canals, wharves, dams, walls, pavements, forts, terraces, etc., have recently been found; and it is claimed that these remains are memorials of the Northmen, who began a settlement here, A.D. 1007. It is also claimed that the site of a Norse city has been discovered near the junction of Stony Brook with Charles River; and a tower has been erected to mark the spot where, for three hundred and fifty years, the little city flourished.

Vinland Forgotten.—The Northmen themselves seem to have forgotten the very name of Vinland, and the discovery of Leif was never known to the people of Southern Europe, not one of whom dreamed of a land across the "Dark Sea," as the Atlantic was then called, until nearly five hundred years later.

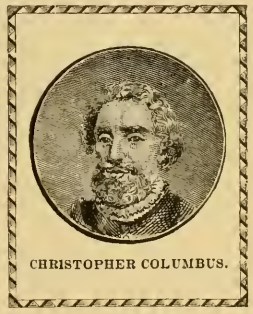
Topics.—In your own words, tell what you can about—

1. The Northmen.
2. Biorn, and Leif the Lucky.
3. The country called Vinland.
4. The old stone mill, etc.
5. Land beyond the "Dark Sea."

Chapter II.

THE STORY OF COLUMBUS.

Birth and Early Life.—At Genoa, in Italy, about the year 1435, there was born to a poor wool-comber, Dominico Colombo, a son, who was named "Christoforo Colombo" (*crees tof'o ro co lom bo*), or Christopher Columbus, as we spell it in English. At an early age the lad showed a strong desire to go to sea, and the education which the slender means of his father allowed was such as would best fit him for a seafaring life. When about fourteen Columbus became a sailor. He made many voyages, and visited most of the seaports of the then known world. Sometimes the ships in which he sailed were engaged in trade, and at other times they went forth to battle with piratical craft, common in those days.



CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS.

On one of those occasions, when the ship of Columbus was fighting a huge galley, and both vessels were in flames, it is said that Columbus threw himself into the sea, seized a floating oar, and saved his life by swimming to the shore, six miles away.

Strange Notions.—Before the days of Columbus, most people believed that the earth was flat. The Atlantic,

stretching away to the west, was, to them, an unknown waste of waters, filled with terrible monsters. The western coast of Africa beyond Cape Verde was unexplored, and frightful stories had been told of burning heat that parched the land of the Torrid Zone, and caused the waters of the deep to boil. As the Northern seas were covered with ice, little was known of those regions.

The Mariner's Compass and the Art of Printing.—But a change was taking place. A few wise men had already learned the true form of the earth. The mariner's compass was coming into general use, and the sailor, no longer obliged to keep in sight of the coast, could steer boldly out to sea, guided by his needle of steel. Later, came the astrolabe, an instrument by which the mariner told his latitude, or distance from the equator, by the height of the sun or stars. In 1450, when Columbus was fourteen years old, the art of printing by movable types was invented, and books of travel began to appear and were read with great interest. All these things helped to make men better acquainted with the geography of the world, and expeditions were constantly going out to explore distant regions. The Portuguese were sending their fleets along the western coast of Africa, hoping to reach the Indies by that route, and other nations were not idle.

MAP OF THE KNOWN WORLD.

[The part of the world known when Columbus sailed is dark.]

Trade with the East.—Long before the time of Columbus, Italy had established trade with Persia, Arabia, and India; spices, silks, gums, and perfumes were brought by caravans to ports on the Mediterranean and Black Seas, and taken thence by ship to Venice, Florence, and Genoa, to be distributed over Western Europe. But traffic across the vast sandy deserts was slow and costly, and merchants began to seek some better route.

Stories of Travelers.—Travelers who had visited China, Japan, and other far-off lands in Eastern Asia, told of rulers who lived in palaces roofed with gold; of great cities whose merchandise was "silks, precious stones, and diverse perfumes." These stories were read and believed, and how to reach those lands and open trade with them became the great question.

The Idea of Columbus.—After leaving school, Columbus continued to study geography and astronomy. He read books of travel, and was constantly drawing maps and charts. He himself says, "I had a hand sufficiently skilled and enough of knowledge to draw a globe with the position of cities, mountains, rivers, and all parts that there were." He listened thoughtfully to stories told of huge reeds, of curiously carved wood, of the bodies of strange men found floating from the west, in the Atlantic, and became convinced that India might be reached by sailing westward. This idea grew so strong that he could not shake it off, and the thought of a voyage across the unknown sea was in his mind at all times.

Columbus Seeks Aid.—But Columbus was too poor to fit out ships of his own for such a voyage, and he had to seek aid. Some listened to his plans, and did all they could to help him; but others ridiculed him, regarding him as half-crazed. He first applied to his native city for ships, but he pleaded in vain. Portugal was then one of the chief commercial countries, and the aid of King John II. was next sought. The king was inclined to favor Columbus, but he secretly sent a ship with another commander to see if there was land in the west. The commander and his sailors were soon discouraged, and returned to make a jest of the notions of Columbus.

Finding that he had been deceived by the king, Columbus went to Spain to lay his plans before Ferdinand and Isabella, king and queen. These monarchs were carrying on a war with the Moors, and Columbus, poor and unknown, waited seven years before he could obtain admission to the court. At last, Queen Isabella heard his story and favored his cause; she offered to pledge her jewels for means to help him, but this was unnecessary, as a friend advanced the money for her. After much delay, ships were made ready and crews placed on board.

CARAVELS OF CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS.
[After an engraving published in 1584.]

So, to a woman, the good queen, Isabella, Columbus was indebted for the means of carrying forward his plans and fulfilling his dreams. We are told that he spent eighteen years in poverty, begging a chance to discover a world. —*Irving.*

The Voyage.—On Friday, August 3d, 1492, the little fleet of three ships, the Santa Maria (*sahn' tah mah ree' ah*), on which Columbus hoisted his flag; the Pinta (*peen' tah*), and Nina (*nee' nah*), commanded by two brothers named Pinzon (*peen thone'*), left the harbor of Palos (*pah' loce*), in Spain, and turned their prows toward the waste of waters in which the sun seemed to set. They sailed by way of the Canaries, where they stopped to repair one of the ships and take in a fresh supply of water. On Sunday, September 9th, they passed the last of these islands and steered westward across the unknown deep.

No sailor in our day would think of crossing the Atlantic in such ships. They were very small, and but one had a deck. The other two were open save at the bow and stern, where there were cabins for the officers and crew. Again and again the seamen lost heart, and they sometimes talked of throwing their commander overboard; but he strove to quiet their fears, and his lofty spirit disarmed them.

Just at sunset, September 25th, the cry of "Land!" went up from the Pinta, and there was great rejoicing; but when morning dawned no land was in sight, and all was gloom again. The supposed land was a cloud just rising above the sea. On sped the ships over the quiet waters, bearing the timid sailors farther and farther from home. At last, land birds came about the ships, green rock-weeds and a branch of thorn floated by, and there seemed an odor of land in the breeze. All that night Columbus stood on deck watching for land.

The Discovery of Land.—In the morning they saw beautifully wooded shores, and birds of bright plumage hovered around. This was Friday, the 12th of October. Columbus made signals for the ships to anchor and the small boats to be armed and manned. He entered his own boat, clad in rich scarlet, and bearing in his hand the royal standard of Spain. The other boats bore banners on which were a green cross and the initials F. and I., with crowns above. Landing, the Spaniards took possession of the island in the name of their sovereigns, calling it San Salvador.

Character of the Natives.—The natives of the island crowded on the beach to watch the ships, which they thought came up from the sea during the night. When the boats approached the shore and they saw that the men were white and strangely clad, they fled in fear to the woods; but, finding that they were not pursued, they slowly approached the Spaniards, prostrating themselves, and making signs of worship. The natives wore no clothing, and Columbus was much pleased with their simplicity and kindness. Supposing that he had reached the Indies, he named the inhabitants Indians.

"So loving, so tractable, so peaceable, are the people," says Columbus in his journal, "that I declare to your Majesties there is not in the world a better

nation, nor a better land. They love their neighbors as themselves; and their discourse is ever sweet and gentle, and accompanied with a smile; and though it is true that they are naked, yet their manners are decorous and praiseworthy." —*Irving's Life of Columbus.*

Return to Spain—Other Voyages.—Columbus soon set sail, discovering Cuba, Hayti, and other West India islands. On his return to Spain he was received with great honors.

COLUMBUS IN IRONS.

The sovereigns waited for him under a rich canopy, in a vast and splendid saloon. Here, seated on a throne, and attended by the dignitaries of their court, they listened to his story. Columbus made three more voy-

ages, visiting Jamaica, Porto Rico, and other islands, and reaching the mainland of South America near the mouth of the Orinoco River (1498).

Columbus in Irons.—The enemies of Columbus brought false charges against him, and, on his third voyage, when touching at Hispaniola—now called Hayti—they caused him to be arrested and sent home in irons.

The caravels set sail, bearing off Columbus shackled like the vilest culprit, amidst the scoffs and shouts of a miscreant rabble, who took a brutal joy in heaping insults on his venerable head, and sent curses after him from the shores of the island he had so recently added to the civilized world.—*Irving.*

It is said that Isabella wept when Columbus was brought before her in irons, and that she ordered his immediate release; but, though set free, he could get no redress for his wrongs, and had to bear a heavy burden of sorrow during his few remaining years.

Death of Columbus.—In 1506, old, weary, and poor, Columbus passed away, ignorant of his discovery of a new world, but believing that he had found a new route to India. His body was deposited in a convent at Valladolid, Spain, from which place it was removed to Seville, where it remained for twenty-three years. It was then taken to Hispaniola, and finally, two hundred and sixty years later, was conveyed to the cathedral at Havana, where it still remains.

Topics.—Tell what you can, in your own words, about—

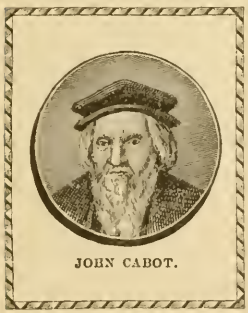
1. The birth and early life of Columbus.
2. Strange notions that prevailed.
3. The mariner's compass, and art of printing.
4. Trade with the East.
5. Stories of travelers.
6. The idea of Columbus.
7. Columbus seeking aid.
8. Voyage of Columbus.
9. The discovery of land.
10. Character of the natives.
11. Return to Spain—Other voyages of Columbus.
12. Columbus in irons—Death of Columbus.

Chapter III.

OTHER DISCOVERERS AND EXPLORERS.

Excitement in Europe.—When Columbus returned to Spain, the news of his discoveries spread over Europe, and people became almost wild with excitement. They talked of the splendors of the newly-found regions, whose river-sands, it was said, sparkled with gold; whose inhabitants were decked with jewels, and dwelt in huts that glittered with pearls.

Voyages of the Cabots.—England and France had missed the prize Columbus had brought to Spain, and they now set about securing what they could. John Cabot, a wealthy merchant of Bristol, England, obtained permission of Henry VII. to cruise about the world in his own ships, at his own expense. In the name of England, he was to take possession of any countries he might discover, and the Cabot family was to have control of the trade of such countries, allowing the king a share of the profits. Cabot and his son, Sebastian, set sail (1497), taking a westerly course, in the hope of reaching India. They landed on the coast of Labrador, and were greatly astonished when they beheld, instead of the warm country they were seeking, a region of ice and snow, "fit to be the home of the white bear." The Cabots had not found a new way to India, but they had discovered North America. On his



JOHN CABOT.

return to England, John Cabot received much honor, and was thenceforth called "The Great Admiral." He dressed in silk, and was followed by crowds of admirers.

A year later (1498), Sebastian Cabot, then but a little more than twenty-one years of age, made another voyage, exploring the coast from Labrador to Maryland, a distance of three thousand miles. During this voyage he became convinced that he had not reached India, but had discovered a new continent.

SEBASTIAN CABOT.

Sebastian Cabot discovered a large island which he named New Found Land, and he noticed the immense number of cod-fish in the surrounding waters. His story of the fish was told over Europe, and within five or six years the fishermen of England and France were gathering harvests of cod from the sea about Newfoundland. Although Cabot was called "The Great Seaman," and received high honors from kings, Queen Mary, of England, allowed the man who had given a continent to her country, to die in comparative poverty and obscurity, at the age of eighty years.

A Famous Year.—The year 1498 stands singularly famous in the annals of the sea. In May, Vasco da Gama (*vas'co da gah'mah*), of Portugal, reached Hindostan by the way of the Cape of Good Hope; in August, Columbus discovered the firm land of South America and the river Orinoco, which seemed to him to flow from some large empire, or perhaps from the terrestrial paradise itself; and, in the summer, Cabot, the youngest of them all, made known to the world the coast-line of the present United States as far as the entrance to the Chesapeake.—*Bancroft.*

Amerigo Vespucci (*ahm a ree' go ves poot' chee*).—Although Columbus is called the discoverer of America, it was named for Amerigo Vespucci, who visited South America in 1499. Vespucci landed on the coast of Venezuela, where he found a village of "forty-four houses, built on piles, shaped like bells, and having entrances like draw-bridges." He sailed along the coast for some distance, learning much about the natives, the strange animals, and plants.

Vespucci wrote an interesting account of his travels, which was published some years later (1507) by a German, who used the word America in the title of his book. As the work was widely read, the name America came into general use, especially when South America was spoken of. In this way our country received its name.*

Ponce de Leon (*ponc' tha da la own'*).—A story of a "Fountain of Youth," concealed in the forests of America, had been told in Spain, and an aged warrior named Ponce de Leon, who had heard the tale, fitted out an expedition, hoping that he might find that wondrous fountain, bathe in its waters, and become young again. His search was vain, and he had to "bear the burden of his years;" but on Easter Sunday (1512), "Flowery Easter," as the Spaniards call it, he discovered a land of "forests and perpetual flowers," which he named Florida. After spending several weeks in exploring the coasts and islands he returned home.

Some years later, Ponce de Leon attempted to found a colony in the paradise he had discovered, but was attacked by Indians, many of his men were slain, and the rest were driven to their ships. Ponce de Leon himself was wounded by a poisoned arrow, and carried back to Cuba to die.

Balboa (*bahl bo' ah*) **Discovers the Pacific.**—We have learned that Sebastian Cabot had concluded that America was not a part of Asia, but it remained for a Spaniard named Balboa to cross the Isthmus of Darien (1513), and gain the first sight of the vast ocean which separates America from Asia. Balboa knelt on the mountain top where he had his first view, and thanked God for the great discovery. He then descended to the shore, and, waving his sword over the water, took possession of the ocean for his sovereign, the king of Spain.

*Some writers now maintain that the name America came from the word Amerique, an Indian name for a range of mountains in Central America.

Magellan's Voyage Round the World.—People now knew that the land discovered was not a part of Asia, and voyages were made to find a way through or around it, so as to reach the wealth of the Indies by a shorter route than that discovered by Vasco de Gama. In 1519, Magellan, a Portuguese navigator, sailed from Spain in a southwest direction across the Atlantic. He passed through the strait which bears his name, and steered across the immense ocean, which he called the Pacific, on account of its smooth waters and steady winds. After much suffering, three of his five ships reached the Ladrones, and, a month later, the Philippine Islands, where Magellan lost his life in a battle with the natives. Only one of his ships, and fifteen of his two hundred and thirty-four men, reached Spain in safety, after a voyage of more than three years. This was the first voyage round the world.

Verrazzani's Voyage.—Verrazzani (*ver rat sah' nee*), an Italian employed by the French, sailed (1524) in the ship Dolphin, by way of Madeira, and after a long, rough voyage reached the coast of North Carolina. He first passed some distance to the south, examining the coast carefully; then, turning northward, followed the shore, stopping at many points. He entered New York harbor, spent some time at Newport trading with the Indians, and from this place sailed slowly along the coast of New England to Nova Scotia. For King Francis I., Verrazzani took possession of the entire coast visited, giving it the name of New France. He wrote pleasant accounts of all he had seen, and the king was greatly pleased.

Discovery of the St. Lawrence.—Jacques Cartier (*zhak car te a'*) of St. Malo, France, made a voyage to America (1534) in two ships fitted out for the purpose. For twenty days he sailed with favorable winds, under cloudless skies, sighting the coast of Newfoundland on the 10th of May. He passed to the northwest of the island, and finally entered a great gulf, which, a year later, when on a second voyage, was called St. Lawrence, in honor of the martyr of that name. The French king was proclaimed monarch of all the territory drained by the St. Lawrence River.

Expedition of De Soto (*da so′ to*).—Ferdinand De Soto, who had been to Peru, and had returned with plunder taken from the natives of that country, fitted up an expedition to explore the new regions, and rob their inhabitants. Six hundred men, chosen from the youth of Spain, set sail in high hope. They had bloodhounds

BURIAL OF DE SOTO.

with which to catch the Indians, and fetters to bind them. De Soto landed at Tampa Bay, Florida (1539), and the little army began its march through the wilderness. The Spaniards found the Indians warlike, and battles were fought with considerable loss. They wandered slowly northward over the region now known as Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi, seeking a rich city,

in order that they might rob its palaces and temples. Some of the Indians were burned by their captives because they could not tell where gold might be found.

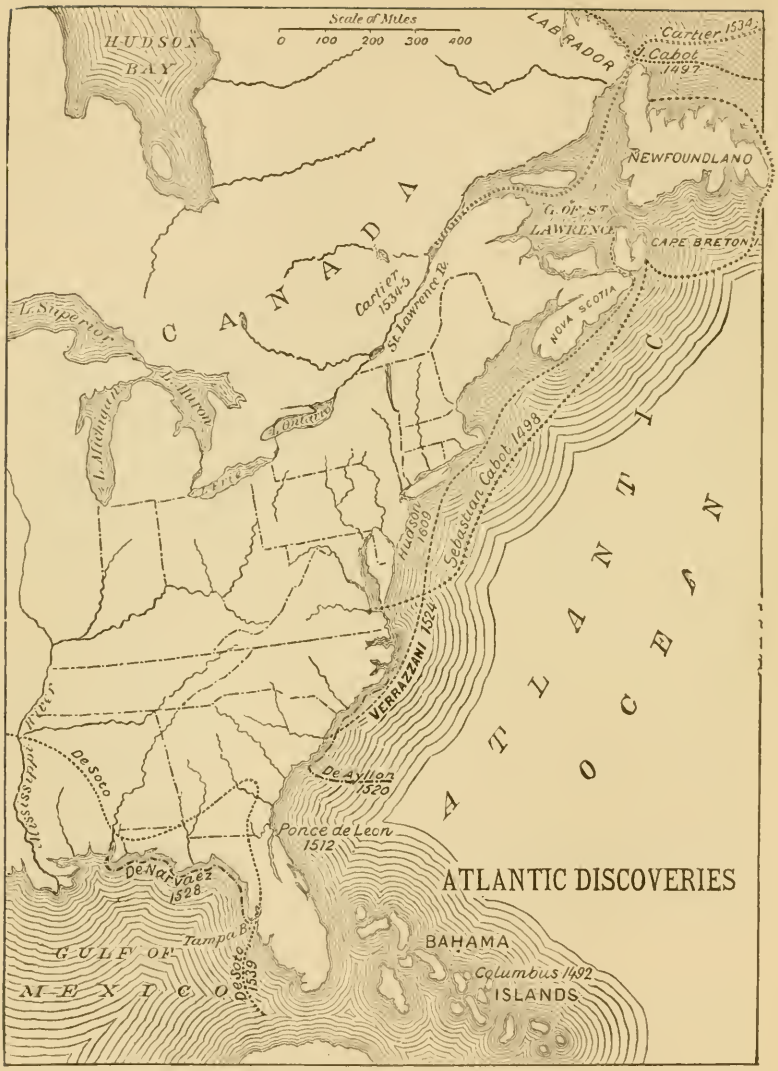
At length, De Soto came to a large river, which proved to be the Mississippi. Boats were built, and the stream was crossed. The Spaniards wandered for months in the region west of the river, enduring great hardships. At last, De Soto sickened and died, and in the silence of the night his body was lowered into the Mississippi. His followers now desired to return to their native land. They slew their horses for meat, and plundered the Indians for bread, while they built rude boats in which to float down the river. Three years had passed, and only three hundred ragged, weary men were left. After reaching the Gulf they steered to the southwest, keeping near the shore, and finally reached a Spanish settlement at the River of Palms.

Discovery of the Mississippi.—For a long time it was thought that De Soto was the discoverer of the Mississippi; but it is now known that the honor belongs to a Spaniard, Alonzo de Pineda (*da peen ah' dah*), who, in 1519, twenty-three years before De Soto saw it from the pine-clad bluffs of Tennessee, sailed along the coast of the Gulf of Mexico and entered the mouth of a mighty river.

Ascending the river a distance of several leagues, Pineda passed no less than forty villages of natives on its banks. He spent some time in trading with the simple and friendly people, and wrote a description of the river and of other things which he saw.*

Voyage of Drake.—Sir Francis Drake had seen the waters of the Pacific Ocean from a mountain at Darien, and resolved to explore them. Under the patronage of his queen, Elizabeth, he set sail from Plymouth, England, in December, 1577; passed through the Straits of Magellan, and, pushing northward, pillaged the Spanish settlements on the western coast of South America, and robbed a Spanish galleon laden with gold and silver. He sailed

*See Magazine of American History, July, 1889.



Exercise.—Note the part of the continent reached by English, French, and Spanish explorers. On a globe or map, trace the general course of trade from India, Persia, and Arabia to ports of Italy. Trace the route of Columbus; Sebastian Cabot; Verrazzani; Cartier; Ponce de Leon; De Soto; Vasco de Gama; Magellan; and Drake.

as far north as the southern boundary of the British possessions, where he encountered cold weather in June, and, turning back, entered San Francisco Bay, through the "Golden Gate." Drake remained on the coast a full month. He named the country New Albion, took formal possession of it, and erected a wooden post, on which was a copper plate, bearing an inscription, the portrait and arms of the queen, and of Drake himself. In returning to England, Drake crossed the Pacific to the Spice Islands, thence over the Indian Ocean, and by the way of the Cape of Good Hope reached home in 1580. He was the first Englishman to circumnavigate the globe. The queen rewarded him with knighthood.

The Pacific Coast was first explored in 1543 by two Spaniards, Cabrello (*ca breel' yo*) and Ferelo (*fa ra' lo*), who sailed as far north as Oregon. The territory went under the control of Spain, and a few small settlements were made by Catholic missionaries; but little was known of the country until it became a part of the United States (1848).

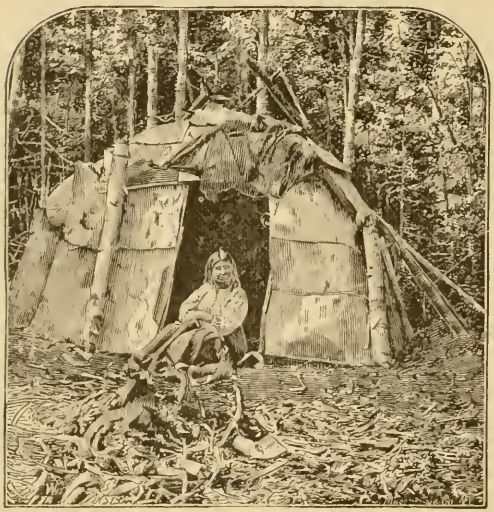
Topics.— Tell what you can of—

1. The excitement in Europe.
2. Voyages of the Cabots.
3. The famous year, 1498.
4. Amerigo Vespucci—America's name.
5. Voyage of Ponce de Leon.
6. Balboa's discovery.
7. Magellan's voyage round the world.
8. Verrazzani's voyage.
9. Discovery of the St. Lawrence.
10. Expedition of De Soto.
11. Discovery of the Mississippi.
12. Voyage of Drake.
13. The exploration of the Pacific coast.

Chapter IV.

THE MEN WHO DWELT HERE BEFORE US.

The Indians.—The first explorers of this country found it inhabited by men very unlike the people of Europe, Asia, or Africa. They formed many tribes, bearing strange names, but all were known to the whites as Indians.



AN INDIAN HUT.

How They Lived.—Some tribes lived in huts, called wigwams, and others had long bark houses, supported by posts set in the ground. These houses were occupied by several families. Some tribes raised corn, beans, and squashes, on which they partly depended for food; others lived wholly on game and fish, with such roots and fruits as grew wild.

In 1696, an invading army found the maize fields of the Iroquois (*e'ro quah*) extending a league and a half or two leagues from their villages. In 1799, the troops of General Sullivan were filled with amazement at their abundant stores of corn, beans, and squashes, and at the old apple orchards which grew around their settlements.—*Parkman's Conspiracy of Pontiac.*

Little clothing was worn during the summer, but in winter they wrapped themselves in skins, which they pre-

pared by smoking, instead of tanning in the manner common with the whites. The women wore their hair long, but the men cut off all save the scalp-lock, which was retained as a matter of honor. Both sexes were fond of ornaments, and the "braves" often tattooed their bodies, covered their faces with bright colors, and decked themselves with gay feathers, shells, bear-claws, and beads.

INDIAN FAMILIES AND TRIBES.

What They Made.—The Indians made mats of rushes, baskets of willow, fish-hooks of bone, nets of hemp, hatchets and arrow-heads of stone, beads of shells, which were sometimes strung and used as wampum, or money. Splints from the birch

and the ash were woven into snow-shoes, on which they strode rapidly over the deep snow.

> Wrapped in furs and armed for hunting,
> With his mighty bow of ash-tree,
> With his quiver full of arrows,
> With his mittens, Min-je-kah-wun,
> Into the vast and vacant forest,
> On his snow-shoes strode he forward. —*Longfellow.*

The Indians were also very skillful in fashioning canoes from the bark of the birch tree, and from logs, which they hollowed out by means of fire. The largest canoes were from twenty to twenty-five feet in length, and each would carry a dozen, or more, full-grown Indians.

INDIAN BABE IN CRADLE.

Women and Children.—The Indian woman, or squaw, was but little better than a slave to her husband, who thought it a disgrace to labor. She built his wigwam, gathered his fuel, planted and hoed his corn, prepared his food, and bore all his heavy burdens. Her boy was taught to use the bow, to throw the tomahawk, to walk on snow-shoes; and he longed for the time when he could go to war and

bring home his first scalp. The girl learned to help her mother.

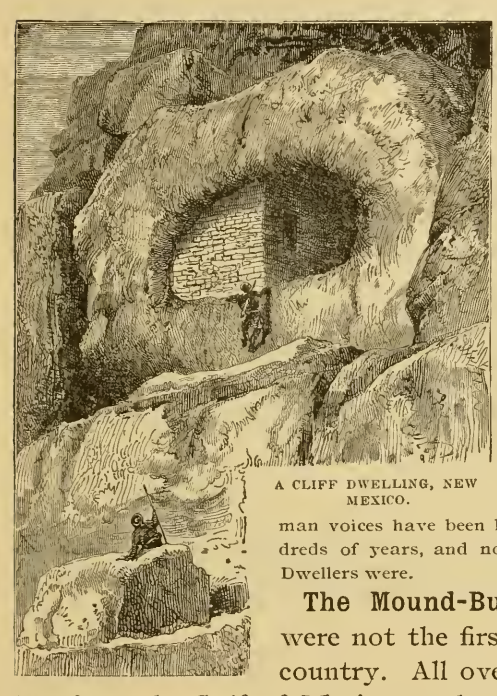
War and War-Dances.—The different tribes were often at war, one with the other. They did not meet their enemies face to face in the open field, as is the custom of the whites, but came upon them by stealth, from the thick woods, the tall grass, or other cover. Before going to war they had a war-dance, which often occurred at night. Fires were lighted, and the warriors, daubed with paint, decked with feathers and other ornaments, would leap, brandish their weapons, and make the forest echo with their horrid yells.

What They Obtained from the Whites.—The Indians had no horse, ox, or other beast of burden. The ponies, so common among them in later days, all came from stock brought over the sea by Europeans. The Indian soon learned to use the white man's gun and knife, and for them he gladly laid aside his old weapons. Tobacco was in common use for smoking, but not for chewing. Drunkenness was unknown among them until the "pale faces" gave them liquor and taught them to drink.

Indian Character.—The Indian rarely spoke to his wife or children, and often spent days in the deepest gloom. He was very cruel to his enemies, but he seldom forgot his true friends, and often saved the life of his benefactor at the risk of his own. The door of his wigwam was open to any comer, and he would give up his own mat that a guest might rest thereon. He had great courage, self-control, and patience. He would gain his end by craft, endure the greatest fatigue, and bear the most horrible tortures without showing a sign of pain. He believed in a "Great Spirit," and in "Happy Hunting Grounds" beyond the grave.

INDIAN BURIAL GROUND ON THE MISSISSIPPI.

The Village Indians.—The Pueblo (*pwa′blo*), or Village, Indians of New Mexico are of a very different class. They live in buildings made of sun-dried brick and of stone, with apartments for hundreds, or even thousands of people. There are no doors in the lower story of their huge dwellings, and no one can enter without a ladder.



A CLIFF DWELLING, NEW MEXICO.

As early as 1530, wandering Spaniards found these Indians cultivating grain and vegetables, spinning cotton, and making the cloth into garments. Some of the Pueblos still occupy houses built by their ancestors centuries ago.

Cliff-Dwellers.—In the adjoining corners of Colorado, Utah, Arizona, and New Mexico are found many wonderful ruins. Among them are huge dwellings in the faces and on the brows of immense cliffs. No human voices have been heard in these homes for hundreds of years, and no one can tell who the Cliff-Dwellers were.

The Mound-Builders.—The Indians were not the first inhabitants of this country. All over the Mississippi Valley, from the Gulf of Mexico to the Great Lakes, mounds of earth, with occasional walls of stone or brick, are found. Some of these mounds are circular; others, oblong or irregular in shape. The animal mounds of Wisconsin are so called because they represent animals, such as the turtle, the lizard, the bear, the fox, the eagle, or the night-hawk. A mound in Adams County, Ohio, has the form of a snake, and is a thousand feet

long. Its tail is coiled, and its open mouth seems to hold something like an egg. St. Louis is often called "The Mound City," because its site was thickly covered with these ancient works. One mound which stood in the vicinity had a height of ninety feet, and an area of nearly

MOUNDS AT MARIETTA, OHIO.

six acres. There are mounds at Marietta, Ohio, covering about seventy-seven acres of ground.

Uses of the Mounds.— The skeletons taken from many mounds show that they were burial places; other mounds, of different form, containing no human remains, were probably used as forts; while some, it is supposed, were altars where animals were sacrificed. Earthern kettles, cups, pipes, water-jugs, and urns; stone axes, spades, pestles, and shuttles; copper chisels, knives, axes, and

spear-heads are among the interesting things dug from these ancient works.

Who Were the Mound-Builders?—Who were the men that heaped these countless mounds of earth? Whose hands shaped and ornamented these vessels of clay? What gardeners dug with these spades of stone? What women ground the golden corn with these pestles? Whose fingers wove with these shuttles? Who dug the copper from the mine and fashioned these knives and spears? What warriors fought behind these strong earthworks? What invading host stormed the walls and overcame the struggling men within?

The Mound-Builders left no written records, and the wisest men are not able to answer these questions. Some suppose that the mounds were built by the ancestors of the Indians, but others are of a different opinion. The Indians themselves could give no account of these people. We know that they must have been far more industrious and skillful than the Indians of later days; that they had fixed homes, tilled the soil as a means of support, wove some of the garments which they wore, and that they lived centuries ago.

Topics.—Tell what you can about—

I. THE INDIANS.

1. How they lived—dwellings, food, clothing.
2. What they made.
3. Women and children.
4. War and war-dances.
5. What they obtained from the whites.
6. Indian character.
7. The Pueblos—Cliff-Dwellers.

II. THE MOUND-BUILDERS.

1. The uses of the mounds.
2. Who the Mound-Builders were.

PART SECOND.

THE COLONIES.

Chapter V.

CLAIMS OF DIFFERENT NATIONS—SETTLEMENTS.

We have learned that the earliest voyages to America were made by the Spaniards, the English, and the French. Each nation claimed all the land it had discovered. Remembering Verrazzani and Cartier, the French spoke of the country as New France. The Spaniards called the mainland by the name Ponce de Leon gave to the peninsula he had discovered. On some of the old maps all the northern part of North America is named New France, and the southern part, Florida. But the English had not forgotten the discoveries of the Cabots, and they named the whole country lying between Florida and Canada, Virginia, in honor of their virgin queen, Elizabeth. In this way rival claims sprung up, and, as we shall see, caused a great deal of trouble.

French Huguenots at Port Royal.—The Huguenots (*hu gen oz*), or Protestants, of France, began a settlement at Port Royal, South Carolina, in 1562. The little colony, numbering less than thirty, built a fort, which they named Carolus, in honor of King Charles IX. They did not know how to till the soil, and suffered greatly for want of food. Many became homesick, and at last all sailed for their native land in a small, rude ship, built with their own hands. Two years later, the Huguenots built a fort

and established a small settlement on the banks of the St. Johns River, Florida.

The Spaniards at St. Augustine.—In 1565, the Spaniards made a settlement in Florida, which they called St. Augustine, in honor of the greatest of church fathers, on whose day, August 28th, the Spanish fleet, under Menendez (*ma nen deth*), arrived off the coast with fifteen hundred soldiers and colonists on board. As soon as they could do so, the Spaniards sent a strong force against the Huguenot settlement on the St. Johns, and cruelly destroyed it, claiming the land as their own.

The ruins of the quaint old town of St. Augustine, and of its fort, San Marco, are seen to this day. The fort was built of shell-rock, procured from quarries in a neighboring island; and hundreds of Indian slaves were employed in its construction. It stood the attack of Indian, French, and English foes.

Coming of the English.—Sir Walter Raleigh (*raw le*), a learned Englishman, received a grant of a large tract of land, and spent a fortune in trying to establish colonies in the New World. He sent (1585) a hundred persons to Roanoke Island, on what is now the coast of North Carolina. Instead of providing food, the men spent most of their time looking for gold, and after a year of distress were taken back to England. Two years later, a much larger colony was planted on the same island. At first, everything promised well, but when their governor returned, after a long visit to England, not a settler could be found, and no one knows the fate of the colony. In this settlement the first child of English parents was born. They named her Virginia Dare.

SIR WALTER RALEIGH.

Some years before, Sir Humphrey Gilbert, a half-brother of Sir Walter Raleigh, had crossed the Atlantic for the purpose of planting a colony in the New World. Landing on the island of Newfoundland, his men became ungovernable, and he determined to return to England. He had lost three of the five vessels with which he set out, and went on board the smaller of the two which remained, a vessel of only ten tons burden. He was advised to take the larger, but refused, saying, "Be of good cheer, my friends; it is as near to heaven by sea as by land." One night the little craft disappeared in a gale, and no one ever again saw her or a soul of her crew. The other vessel escaped, and bore the sad news to England (1583).

London and Plymouth Companies.— In April, 1606, James I., King of England, granted a charter to two companies, giving them the whole continent, from the 34th to the 45th parallel, including the sea-coast from South Carolina to New Brunswick. The Plymouth Company was to take the northern half, and the London Company the southern, but the nearest settlements of the two companies were to be a hundred miles apart.

Topics.— Tell about—

1. Rival claims.
2. The Huguenots at Port Royal.
3. The Spaniards at St. Augustine.
4. Sir Walter Raleigh's settlements.
5. London and Plymouth companies.

Chapter VI.

HOW VIRGINIA WAS SETTLED.

The Men Who Came.— The London Company sent out a colony which consisted of one hundred and five men, without women or children. One-half of the men were gentlemen who had lost their fortunes; some were tradesmen; others, footmen; a few only were farmers or mechanics. Such men were poorly fitted for the hardships of a new country, where the land had to be cleared of its heavy timber, crops cultivated for food, and houses built of trees still growing in the forest.

Captain John Smith.—But there was one man among them, not yet thirty years old, who was highly gifted in mind and strong in body. His name was John Smith. He was born in England, and had led a strange life. From boyhood he had been a soldier, roaming over the world. Once he was thrown overboard by his fellow passengers, and saved his life by swimming to an island. He was in battles against the Turks; was taken prisoner; sold as a slave, and freed by a mistress who pitied him. Smith finally became the leader of the colony, and saved it from failure.

CAPTAIN JOHN SMITH.

Settlement of Jamestown.—The colony sailed in three small vessels, under Captain Newport. It reached James River, May 13th, 1607, and established the first permanent English settlement in America, giving it the name Jamestown, in honor of their king. Many of the colonists did not know how to work, and but few were really industrious. Some wandered about in search of gold, and they even loaded one of their ships with a glittering substance, "fool's gold," which they mistook for precious ore.

Scarcity of Food.—After a time food became scarce, and the colonists had to live on a little porridge made of worm-eaten barley or wheat. The poor food, the river water which they drank, and the hot sun soon caused much sickness, and before the close of summer every second man had died. In the autumn wild fowl and game became abundant, and bread was made of the little wheat gathered from their late spring sowing.

Captain Smith was never idle. He taught the people to chop, to build cabins, to prepare the ground for planting. He also drilled them as soldiers, and at night every man had to take his turn in watching for Indians, who were always prowling around.

Homes of the Settlers.—Smith has told us how the settlers lived. He says: "When I first went to Virginia, I well remember we did hang an awning to three or four trees to shadow us from the sun; our walls were rails of wood, our seats, unhewed trees, till we cut planks; our pulpit a bar of wood nailed to two neighboring trees. In foul weather we shifted into an old rotten tent, for we had few

better; and this came by way of adventure for new. This was also our church until we built a homely thing like a barn, set up on crotches, covered with rafts, sedge, and earth, as were also the walls. The best of our houses were of like curiosity, but for the most part of far worse workmanship, that could neither well defend wind nor rain."

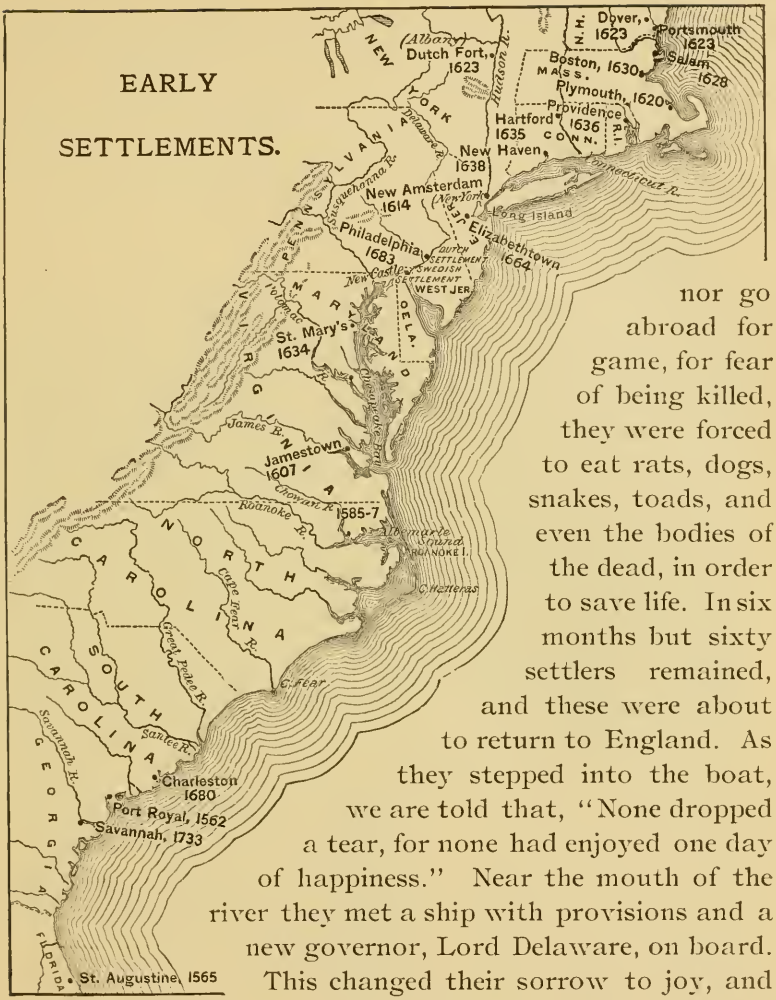
Smith's Adventures.—Smith often sailed in his little boat, the Discovery, along the bays and streams, to explore the country, and to trade with the Indians, to whom he gave beads and other trinkets for corn to be used as food. On one of his trips, two of Smith's men were killed by the Indians, and he was made prisoner and led from place to place. Powhatan, the chief, said that Smith must be put to death; but the chief's daughter, Pocahontas, a girl but twelve years of age, begged that he might live, and Smith's life was spared.*

Pocahontas, the little Indian maiden, became the true friend of the whites, bringing them food, and warning them of danger. She grew to be a beautiful woman, was baptized at the church in Jamestown, from a pine trough used as a font, and was married to a planter named John Rolfe, "an honest and discreet young Englishman," who took her to England, where she was beloved by all. "She did not only accustom herself to civilized life, but carried herself as the daughter of a king." Pocahontas died soon after, leaving a son, from whom some of the first families of Virginia claim descent.

When Smith returned from captivity, the colony was near starvation. Only thirty-eight persons were left, and they were getting ready to go back to the old country. Having confidence in Smith, they again went to work. Other settlers were sent over from England, but most of them were "vagabond gentlemen," who were no help to the colony. In 1609, Smith went to England to be cured of a wound caused by an explosion of powder. He never returned to America.

The Starving Time.—At the time Smith left, there were nearly five hundred settlers. They soon had trouble with the Indians, and as they could neither buy food of them

*This pleasant story is now regarded as fiction.



nor go abroad for game, for fear of being killed, they were forced to eat rats, dogs, snakes, toads, and even the bodies of the dead, in order to save life. In six months but sixty settlers remained, and these were about to return to England. As they stepped into the boat, we are told that, "None dropped a tear, for none had enjoyed one day of happiness." Near the mouth of the river they met a ship with provisions and a new governor, Lord Delaware, on board. This changed their sorrow to joy, and all turned back to their deserted homes, saying, "God will raise our state."

Better Days.—Better times followed. A new charter was obtained from the king, and the settlers, instead

of having everything in common, were allowed to own and till farms, each for himself, and the people were given a voice in making their own laws. This was really the beginning of free government in America. A better class of men now began to come from the Old World, and settlements were formed along the banks of the James, as high up as the present site of Richmond.

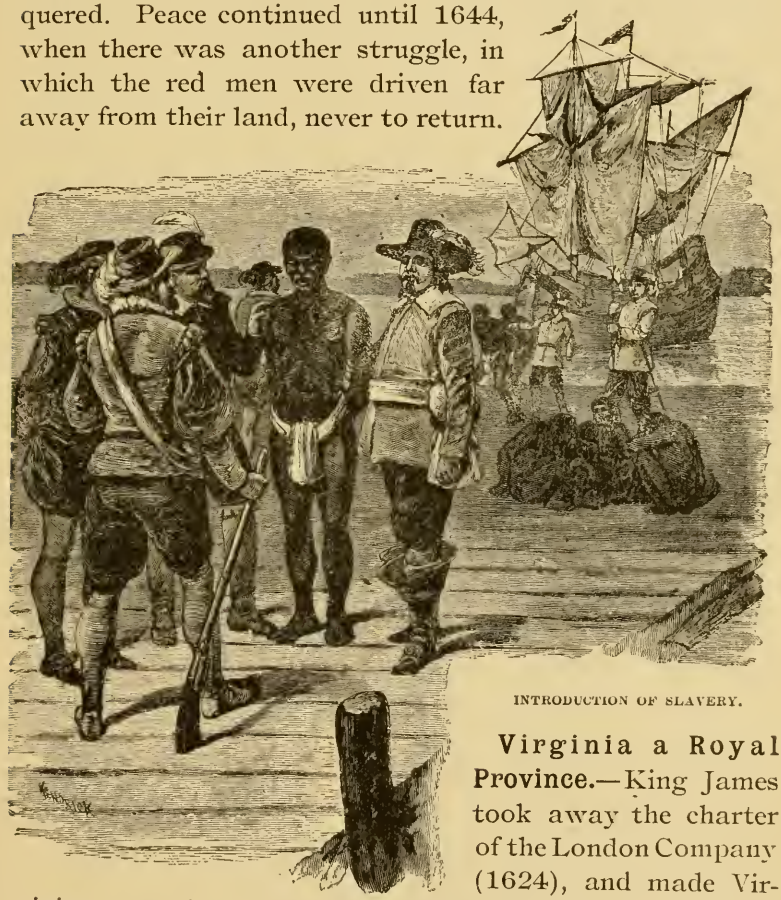
Cultivation of Tobacco.—The early explorers of Virginia found tobacco in general use among the Indians. It soon made its way to Europe, and, though King James wrote against it, and the Pope strongly condemned the practice of smoking, the demand for the "vile weed" continued to increase, and the planters soon found its cultivation so profitable that little attention was given to other industries.

Tobacco was grown on the plantations, in the squares, gardens, and streets. It came to be used in place of money, and the salaries of clergymen were paid in it, the first four receiving two hundred pounds a year each. A cargo of respectable young women was sent over, and whoever married one of them had to pay one hundred and twenty pounds, the cost of the voyage.

Introduction of Slavery.—In 1619, a Dutch vessel sailed up the river to the plantations with twenty negroes, who were offered at auction, and eagerly bought by the wealthier planters, to be held as slaves for life. This was the beginning of African slavery in our country. The negroes became field hands and mechanics, and as tobacco growing by slave labor was found to be very profitable, others were brought over from time to time to stock the plantations.

Trouble with the Indians.—Under better laws the colony grew more and more prosperous, until, in 1622, there were four thousand white inhabitants, and plantations extended along the James for one hundred and fifty miles, and far back from the river on other streams. But the

Indians, seeing how rapidly their lands were being taken from them, concluded to kill all the settlers. Then followed a bloody war, in which the whites at last conquered. Peace continued until 1644, when there was another struggle, in which the red men were driven far away from their land, never to return.



INTRODUCTION OF SLAVERY.

Virginia a Royal Province.—King James took away the charter of the London Company (1624), and made Virginia a royal province, promising the people all the liberty they then enjoyed. But many of the governors oppressed the colonists, and the people of the mother country were not willing to give them their rights, though the

privilege of passing laws in their assembly was not surrendered. Things grew worse and worse, until a governor by the name of Berkeley, who had been very tyrannical, refused to let the colonists defend themselves against the Indians.

Bacon's Rebellion.—The colonists then took matters into their own hands, and, under the leadership of a young planter, named Nathaniel Bacon, sought to redress their wrongs. Bacon had almost succeeded, when he suddenly died, and Berkeley, coming into power again, hanged twenty of the leaders who had opposed him. Berkeley was recalled by the king, Charles II., who said, "The old fool has taken more lives in that naked country than I did for the murder of my father."

Abundance.—For the next hundred years, in spite of many hard rulers and bad laws, the colony continued to prosper and increase in population.

Abundance gushed from the earth for all. The morasses were alive with water-fowl; the creeks abounded with oysters, heaped together in large quantities; the rivers were alive with fish; the forests were nimble with game; the woods rustled with coveys of quail and wild turkey, while they rung with the merry notes of singing birds; and hogs, swarming like vermin, ran at large in troops. It was the best poor man's country in the world.—*Bancroft.*

Topics.—Tell what you can about—

1. The men who came.
2. Captain John Smith.
3. Settlement of Jamestown.
4. Scarcity of food—Homes of settlers.
5. Smith's adventures.
6. Pocahontas, the Indian maiden.
7. The starving time—Better days.
8. The cultivation of tobacco.
9. Introduction of slavery.
10. Trouble with the Indians.
11. Virginia a royal province.
12. Bacon's rebellion—Abundance.

Chapter VII.

HOW THE PEOPLE LIVED.

Homes.—As most of the people of Virginia were planters, whose estates lay along the water-courses and inlets, boats could be loaded with tobacco, or deliver goods at almost any point, and as very little manufacturing was done, few villages sprung up. For the most part, gentlemen lived on plantations containing thousands of acres of land, tilled by slaves. Many of the planters' houses were built of brick brought across the sea, and the furniture was in some cases very rich and costly. The slaves lived in wooden cabins, at a little distance from the mansion of their master. Each cabin had its garden and poultry yard, and black children, "pickaninnies," were seen everywhere in the "negro quarters."

Some black Dinah or Chloe attended to the cooking, and dishes of bacon, wild fowl, or other game, with hot biscuit and hoe-cake, or corn-bread, were served on the planter's table.

Schools.—Slaves were not taught to read or write, and, as there were no free schools, the children of the poor whites grew up almost as ignorant as the children of the blacks. A Virginia governor said, "I thank God there are no free schools, nor printing-presses, and I hope we shall not have them these hundred years" (1671). The wealthy sometimes sent their children abroad to be educated, and a few private schools were established at home. William and Mary College was founded in 1693, the second in America. It is the only college that received a royal charter.

There were few books and no newspapers in those early days, and quiet home-pleasures and sports were almost unknown. Excitement was sought in fox-hunting, horse-racing, cock-fighting, and other rude sports common at that time in the Old World.

Religion.—The laws relating to religion were quite severe. In 1662, the British Parliament passed an act requiring uniformity of public worship throughout the realm. At the same time, the Church of England was made the established church in Virginia by a vote of the assembly, and all other sects were forbidden to preach the gospel, on pain of banishment from the colony. On every large plantation a room was set apart for worship, and clergymen were fined for neglect of duty. At one time, every white male over sixteen had to pay, each year, ten pounds of tobacco and one bushel of early ripened corn for the support of the church. People were punished for staying away from meeting. Quakers and Catholics were not allowed to settle in the colony. There were laws against swearing and scolding; and, for some offenses, women, as well as men, were publicly whipped or made to stand at the church door during service on the Sabbath, with sheets thrown over them.

Modes of Travel.—At first, mere foot-paths were opened through the forest, and, away from the large streams, nearly everybody traveled on horseback. Some of the wealthiest planters on the Potomac kept beautiful barges, brought over from England, in which they visited neighboring estates, negroes in uniform acting as rowers. Every planter's house was open to friends and strangers alike. "The doors of citizens were open to all decent travelers, and shut against none," and one might make a long journey with little expense.

Articles of Luxury.—The mistress of the mansion did not labor with her own hands, but she was mindful of the wants of her black servants, who came and went at her bidding. Her articles of luxury, and many of her comforts, were brought direct from England in ships that sailed up

EARLY DAYS IN THE SOUTH—MY LADY'S VISIT.

the large rivers. They were paid for in tobacco, which was planted, hoed, gathered, and packed by slaves.

Dress and Ceremony.—There was a good deal of show and ceremony on public occasions. One of the early governors, whenever he attended church, did so with a formality thus described by his secretary: "Every Sunday, when the lord-governor and captain-general goeth to church, he is accompanied by all the counselors, captains, other officers, and all the gentlemen, with a guard of Hal-

berdiers in his lordship's livery (fair red cloaks), to the number of fifty, on each side and behind him. His lordship hath his seat in the Quoir, in a great velvet chair, with a cloth, with a velvet cushion spread before him, on which he kneeleth; and on each side sit the council, captains, and officers, each in their place; and, when he returneth home again, he is waited on to his house in the same manner."—*Higginson.*

Topics.—Tell about—

1. The homes of the people.
2. The table—articles of food.
3. Schools—printing presses.
4. Sports—horse-racing—fox-hunting.
5. Religion—Church of England.
6. Modes of travel—horse-back riding.
7. Articles of luxury.
8. Dress and ceremony on public occasions.

Chapter VIII.

SETTLEMENT OF NEW YORK.

Coming of the Dutch.—Early in September, 1609, a bold English sailor, Henry Hudson, employed by the Dutch East India Company, cast the anchor of his ship, the Half Moon, not far from what is now called Sandy Hook. A few days later, he entered the beautiful stream which now bears his name, and explored it as far up as the place where Albany now stands. No other white man had seen the Hudson River, and its banks are described by the old sailor as "pleasant, with grass, and flowers, and goodly trees."

As Hudson sailed up the river, the Indians came out to the ship in canoes, bringing furs, oysters, beans, grapes, and pumpkins, for which they were given beads, knives, and hatchets. At one place they invited Hudson ashore, where he partook of a feast of fat-dog which had been killed and cooked for the occasion. The Indians considered this a great treat.

Hudson had made two voyages in search of a northwest passage to India, and was on a third voyage when he discovered the Hudson River. His fourth voyage was made a year later. While in Hudson Bay a mutiny occurred among

his men, and he, with eight others, was put into an open boat and left to perish. "The gloomy waste of waters which bears his name is his tomb and his monument."

New Amsterdam.—After Hudson's discovery, Holland claimed all the land along the river, giving it the name of New Netherlands. In 1614, some sailors, whose small ship, the Tiger, with a cargo of bear-skins, had been burned, put up a log fort and a few huts on Manhattan Island, in which they spent the winter buying furs. This small settlement was the beginning of New Amsterdam, and also of the great city of New York. Twelve years later, the first Dutch governor, Peter Minuet, bought the island of Manhattan for about twenty-four dollars, paying for it in trinkets. Trading posts were soon established along the river, and the Dutch grew rich by exchanging blankets, beads, guns, and rum for furs, which the Indians obtained by trapping.

The Patroons.—To any one who would found a colony of not less than fifty persons, the Dutch East India Company offered a tract of land sixteen miles in length, bordering on any stream, and extending back as far as might be desired. The company further agreed to supply these large landholders, called patroons, with negro slaves, to be imported from Guinea. The patroons were to pay the Indians for their lands; and they were to have authority over their own estates, without regard to the colonial government.

To supply the fifty persons required for each of these large estates, poor Germans were often brought over by sea captains, who received their passage money from the patroons. The poor men were obliged to repay the patroons by serving them a certain number of years. Some of the descendants of these laborers are now among the wealthiest people of New York.

Dutch Governors.—The governors of the colony were sent from Holland. One of them, by the name of Kieft,

was very cruel to the Indians, who, in revenge for their wrongs, made the forests echo with their war-whoops, and no home or hamlet was safe from their attacks. For this folly the colonists sent the governor home, but his ship was wrecked on the coast of Wales and Kieft perished.

For twenty years after this, Peter Stuyvesant (*sti' ve zant*), the last and best of the four Dutch governors, ruled.

PETER STUYVESANT.

Peter had been a soldier, and had lost a leg in the wars. He was a brave and true-hearted man, but was very despotic, and was called Headstrong Peter. Peace was made with the Indians, many settlers came over from Europe, and the country prospered. The persecuted Huguenots from France, the Waldenses from Italy, the Calvinists from Switzerland, and the hated Jew found homes in the colony, and were allowed to worship as they chose.

New Amsterdam Becomes New York.—But a change now came. We have learned that the English claimed all the land from South Carolina to New Brunswick. Charles II. had not forgotten this claim, and he gave his brother, the Duke of York, large tracts of land, including all the Dutch possessions, and the duke made haste to secure this territory. An English fleet was fitted out, and sailed for New Amsterdam, in whose harbor it appeared, August, 1664. As it was a time of peace, the brave old governor was taken by surprise, but declared he would hold the place at any cost. However, he was compelled to surrender, and the English flag soon floated over the fort and town. On the 8th of September the name of the colony was changed to New York, in honor of the new proprietor.

So the little town of fifteen hundred souls, with all the other Dutch settlements, passed under English rule. Governors were appointed, some of whom ruled badly; but the people were allowed to hold an assembly, in order to make their own laws, and, after a time, they obtained a charter (1683). New York remained an English colony, but Dutch customs prevailed for a long time. The Dutch language was spoken, and there were Dutch schools, where a little English was taught. Kings College, now Columbia, was founded in 1754.

Topics.— Tell about—

1. The coming of the Dutch.
2. New Amsterdam.
3. The patroons.
4. Dutch governors.
5. How New Amsterdam became New York.

Chapter IX.

LIFE IN NEW AMSTERDAM.

Dwellings and Furniture.—The best houses in New Amsterdam were built of wood, with gables of small, colored brick, made in Holland. The houses had many gables, doors, windows, and porches, and large iron letters were often placed on the front to show when they were built. No dwelling was quite complete without a weather-cock at its peak to show the direction of the wind. The furniture was plain and solid, and the large cupboards contained china and silverware brought from the Old World, and handed down in the family from generation to generation. There were large, open fire-places, around which old and young gathered in winter, to tell stories, play games, and enjoy other good cheer.

Thrifty Housewives.—The housewife scoured the floors and sprinkled them with clean white sand, in which she traced figures with her broom. Pine knots and home-made tallow candles were used for light. Every house had its spinning-wheel, its reel, and loom. Mothers and daughters

A DUTCH HOUSEHOLD.

spun and wove, and a large store of linen was always kept in the old oaken chest. The Dutch were good livers, and their tables were often graced with huge apple-pies, baked in brick ovens, saucers of preserved peaches

and pears, and large dishes of "olykocks," or doughnuts. Mush, or bread with buttermilk, was a common supper.

Dress.—The women wore white muslin caps, and kept the hair smooth with pomatum or tallow. Gayly colored petticoats, which came just below the knee, with red or green woolen stockings of their own knitting, and high-heeled shoes, with silver buckles, were "all the fashion." Every woman who went out on a visit carried a work-bag, with scissors and pin-cushion. The men wore large linsey-woolsey coats, with broad skirts, and large brass or silver buttons. Several pairs of short breeches were worn, one over another, with long stockings, and great buckles at the knees and on the shoes. The hair was allowed to grow long, and sometimes it was done up in an eel-skin cue, which hung behind.

School-Masters and Ministers.—The school-masters of those days visited the sick, acted as clerks, and led the singing at church. Frequently the ministers, or dominies, were paid in beaver skins, or in wampum; and we read of one who received one hundred and fifty skins for a year's preaching. Many festivals were observed, and we may thank the Dutch for "Santa Claus," for colored eggs at Easter, and for New Year's calls.

Trade.—The people of New Amsterdam built their own ships, and sent off cargoes of fur, tobacco, timber, staves, and tar, for which they received much money and many needed things from lands beyond the sea.

Topics.—Tell about—

1. Dwellings.
2. Housewives.
3. Dress.
4. School-masters and ministers.
5. Trade.

Chapter X.

THE NEW ENGLAND COLONIES.

MASSACHUSETTS.

Coming of the Pilgrims.—Near the northern boundary of Nottinghamshire, England, is the little village of Scrooby. Here, a long time ago, there dwelt a number of persons who did not believe in the doctrines and ceremonies of the Established Church, and wished to worship God in their own way. This they could not do openly, and they held their meetings in secret, but were discovered, and their lives were made very bitter by persecution.

At last, they resolved to seek freedom in Holland, where they arrived after many trials. Eleven happy and prosperous years were spent in that land, but they thought it best to make a home in the New World, where they could dwell apart, and found a state in which they might think and worship as they chose.

On Board the Mayflower.—"Amid tears, and prayers, and fond 'farewells,'' as many as could be provided with quarters, set sail in the Speedwell, for Southampton, England, where they were joined by other Pilgrims in the Mayflower, a ship of but one hundred and sixty tons. The Speedwell proving unsafe, was left at Plymouth, and about one hundred souls, men, women, and children, embarked in the Mayflower.

The weather was cold and stormy, and the voyage long, so that they did not drop anchor in Cape Cod Bay until the 11th of November. They spent a month in looking

for a safe harbor, and a good place for settlement. Finally, they came to a place which they named Plymouth, in memory of the last English port from which they had sailed, and here, on the 21st day of December, 1620, the Pilgrims landed, a lass named Mary Chilton being the first to step from the boat to a large boulder, since called "Plymouth Rock."

"The breaking waves dashed high
On a stern and rock-bound coast,
And the woods against a stormy sky
Their giant branches tossed.

"And the heavy night hung dark
The hills and waters o'er,
When a band of exiles moored their bark
On the wild New England shore.

* * * * * *

"Amidst the storm they sang,
And the stars heard, and the sea;
And the sounding aisles of the dim woods rang
To the anthem of the free.

"The ocean eagle soared
From his nest by the white waves' foam;
And the rocking pines of the forest roared—
This was their welcome home."

—*Felicia Dorothea Hemans.*

Forming a Government.—At a meeting in the cabin, before landing, it was agreed that every man should have an equal share in the government, and John Carver was chosen governor. (*See frontispiece.*) A military company was formed, with Miles Standish as captain. The soldiers had each a coat of mail, a sword, and a matchlock musket.

They brought on shore all their possessions, such as we see at this day at Pilgrim Hall, Plymouth,—arm-chairs and spinning-wheels, and Miles Standish's great iron dinner-kettle, Lora Standish's sampler, and the cradle of Peregrine White, the baby who was born on board the Mayflower, and who was named Peregrine from the peregrinations (or wanderings) of the Pilgrims.—*Higginson.*

The First Winter.—The Pilgrims began at once to build houses of logs, with roofs thatched with long, dry grass,

and with oiled paper for windows. When the houses were finished, they erected a log structure, the lower part of which was used for a church, and the upper part for a fort. Here Elder Brewster preached, and all felt safe. They lived by hunting and fishing until corn was raised, but they often suffered for want of food, and sometimes the strongest men staggered from weakness. The suffering from cold, hunger, and exposure was very great, and sickness fell heavily upon the colony. Every second day a grave was dug in the frozen earth, and by spring but fifty souls remained.

MILES STANDISH'S SWORD, POT, AND PLATTER—PRESERVED IN PILGRIM HALL, PLYMOUTH.

Treaty with the Red Men.—The red men taught the Pilgrims to "shoot fish with arrows, to tread eels out of the mud with their feet," and many other helpful things. One pleasant morning in spring, Samoset, a chief of a petty tribe, came to the settlement with words of welcome, and a few days later he brought Massasoit, the chief of the Wampanoags, who made a friendly treaty with them, which was not broken for over fifty years.

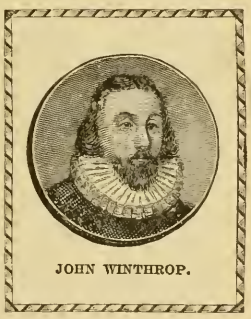
The First Crop.—The first crop was scanty to feed the colonists, and as more emigrants came over without a supply of food, the allowance became so short that, at

one time there were but five grains of corn a day for each person. But the people were industrious, and abundance came at last.

Sources of Wealth.—After a time the colonists sold corn to fishing vessels, and exchanged it with the Indians for furs. They also sent cargoes of sassafras, furs, and lumber to England.

The woods were a source of wealth. Boards, shingles, staves, and hoops for barrels, and masts, all of which cost nothing but labor, were shaped and laid out in the winter season for the basis of trade in the coming summer. The pine forests offered a supply of turpentine, pitch, and tar. The fishery was counted upon as an important means of support and gain.—*Palfrey's History of New England.*

Massachusetts Bay Colony.—In the autumn of 1628, John Endicott, his wife, and family, with some fifty or sixty others, founded the town now called Salem. Five ship-loads of settlers came over the following year. This was the beginning of what was called the Massachusetts Bay Colony. In 1630, John Winthrop, who had been appointed governor, set sail for Massachusetts with about a thousand people. He brought a charter, granted by Charles I. of England, allowing the colonists to make their own laws. A part of Winthrop's company settled at Boston, and that place became the capital of the colony. Settlements were also made at Charlestown, Dorchester, Lynn, and at other places. During the year, at least fifteen hundred persons came from England, and in ten years not less than twenty thousand were brought over.



JOHN WINTHROP.

At this time (1630), there was a feeble colony in Virginia; a very small Dutch settlement in New York; a population of about three hundred at Plymouth; about as many more English inhabitants divided between Salem and Charlestown;

a few settlers scattered up and down the coast, and all the rest a vast wilderness, the covert of wild beasts and savages.—*Edward Everett.*

These colonists were named Puritans, because they had sought to make the Church of England purer. They had been persecuted, and came to America, hoping to have greater freedom, but they did not dislike their mother country so much as had the Pilgrims, and left her saying, "Farewell, dear England!"

Sufferings of the Puritans.—Although the Puritans brought tools, cattle, and horses, and were much more numerous and wealthy than the Pilgrims, they suffered greatly, and one of the colonists wrote:

"Bread is so very scarce, that sometimes I think the very crumbs of my father's table would be sweet unto me; and when I could have meat, water, and salt boiled together, it was so good, who could wish better?" At first many died of fatigue and hardship, but the survivors found "a sup of New England's air beter than a draught of Old England's ale," and grew healthy and content.

BIBLE, BROUGHT OVER IN THE MAYFLOWER, IN PILGRIM HALL, PLYMOUTH.

Pilgrims and Puritans Unite.—The Massachusetts Bay Colony increased much more rapidly than that at Plymouth. For sixty years each was a little republic, where the people managed their own affairs; but the two colonies united (1692), taking the name Massachusetts from a tribe of Indians.

Character of the Puritans.—The Puritans came to the New World to enjoy religious freedom. They were a noble people, temperate in their habits, and strict in morals; but they wished everybody who settled among them to believe just as they did, and this was the cause of much trouble. A young minister, named Roger Williams, who believed

that every man should listen to his own conscience, was forced to find a home elsewhere. The Quakers and others were also driven out of the colony.

Maine a Part of Massachusetts.—During the whole of the colonial period, Maine was considered a part of Massachusetts, and it was not counted a separate colony even at the time of the Revolution. People went to that region to hunt and fish, and its first settlements were mere fishing stations. The French and Indians from Canada were a source of constant terror to English settlers, and they came very slowly.

CONNECTICUT.

First Explorers.—Connecticut is said to be an Indian word, meaning "long river." A Dutch navigator, Adrian Block, first explored its coast, and the Dutch bought land of an Indian chief, and built a trading post, near where Hartford now is, which they named House of Hope. They told the English not to sail up the river, and when, shortly after, a company of traders from Plymouth hove in sight, they threatened to fire upon them. But the English took no heed of their threats, and, sailing right along, established a post a short distance above (1633). For many years there was rivalry between the Dutch and English in the Connecticut Valley, whose rich bottom-lands were very attractive to the settlers of Massachusetts.

The Connecticut Colony.—In the autumn of 1635, John Steele, of Cambridge, led the first overland party to the valley, and began the settlement of Hartford. They suffered greatly in their open cabins, half-buried in snow, with only a little corn for food. The next year, the Reverend Thomas Hooker took out the main colony. There were no roads, and they drove their cattle through the wilderness, all traveling on foot through swamps, and over

rugged mountains, with little food, save milk from their cows. Mrs. Hooker, being sick, was carried on a litter. They reached the river at last, and settled Hartford, Windsor, and Wethersfield, known as the Connecticut Colony. All freemen who had taken the oath of allegiance were allowed to vote.

The Pequod War.—The colonists had been in their new homes but a few months when a war broke out with a fierce Indian tribe, called Pequods, in which other New England colonies were involved. There was danger that the Narragansetts would join the Pequods, and the good Roger Williams, forgetting the wrongs he had received from the Puritans, and risking his own life, went to the Indian council, where, after three days, he prevailed on the chief of the Narragansetts to help the whites.

The Pequods made frequent attacks on the settlers, and a body of ninety men was raised in the weak Connecticut settlements. After spending nearly all night in prayer, they set out on their terrible march. On the way they were joined by several hundred friendly Indians, and all moved stealthily forward to surprise the foe.

Destruction of the Pequods.—The Pequods had a fort enclosed by a stockade, made by setting the trunks of trees side by side in the ground. Within the stockade were about seventy wigwams, covered with matting. The party reached the fort at day-break to find the sentry asleep. Being aroused, he shouted, "Owanux!" "Owanux!" (the English). But the troops rushed in at the gate; the wigwams were soon ablaze; the whole tribe perished in a day, and the colonies were not again disturbed by savages for many years.

New Haven Colony.—New Haven was settled by wealthy Puritans, direct from England, and for a long time the

people had no law but the Bible, and none but church members were allowed to vote (1638).

Union of New England Colonies.—The Pequod War proved to be a valuable lesson to the colonies of New England. They saw how easily a single colony might be overcome by Indians or other foes, and a union of all the colonies for protection against the Indians, Dutch, and French took place in 1643. As Rhode Island was claimed by Plymouth, it was not admitted into this union, which endured for nearly fifty years. We shall see how, more than a hundred years later, the colonists again united to resist a powerful foe, and secure their rights.

Body of Liberties.—In December, 1641, a general code of laws, or "Body of Liberties," was agreed upon, by which every citizen was given by law all the rights he had hitherto enjoyed by favor. "The general court of Massachusetts established a hundred laws, which were to be read and considered in every general court held within the ensuing three years. Then, those not repealed or altered were to become laws of the colonies."

The laws were written by Nathaniel Ward, at one time a Puritan clergyman, but then a lawyer. Some of them would sound strange in our days, but for those times they were fair and liberal. Ten offenses were punished with death; among them were idolatry, witchcraft, blasphemy, and treason. Women, children, servants, foreigners, and animals were protected by various penalties, but slavery was sanctioned.

Union of Connecticut Colonies.—The Connecticut colonies were united, and through the influence of Governor John Winthrop, Jr., a most liberal charter was obtained from King Charles II. (1662). All the New England colonies prized their charters very highly, and feared that the English king might take them away.

New England as a Royal Province.—Some twenty years later, King James II. concluded that the colonies had too many rights, and he placed the whole of New England under one governor, making it a royal province (1686). Sir Edmond Andros was appointed governor, and he proved to be a great tyrant.

A Charter Concealed. — Andros, very pompous, and glittering with scarlet and lace, went to Hartford, and demanded the charter of the assembly (1687). The story has been told that the people crowded around to take a last look at the paper which secured them their rights. Just then the lights were blown out, and the charter was seized and hidden in a hollow tree, which became famous in history as the "Charter Oak."

Andros Seized. — The people of New England suffered from the tyranny of Andros until his rule became so bad that he could be endured no longer, when he was seized and placed in prison. The colonies then went back to their old way of law-making and governing, and the charter of Connecticut was brought from its hiding place.

RHODE ISLAND.

Settlement of Providence.—After his banishment, Roger Williams took refuge among the Indians, with whom he remained for several months. He then purchased lands from them and began a settlement, which he named Providence, "in memory of God's merciful providence to him in his distress." Anne Hutchinson, a gifted preacher who was obliged to flee from the wrath of the Puritans, and Quakers who were sorely persecuted, found shelter and rest in Providence, where Williams welcomed people of every creed. In this way the little state of Rhode Island began to be settled (1636).

Religious Freedom.—Roger Williams kept none of his large tract of land for himself, but "gave it to them that seemed most in want." He said, "I desire it to be a shelter for those in distress for conscience." The new colony obtained a charter from the king, and its laws allowed Catholics, Protestants, Mohammedans, and Jews to worship as they chose. The men of all nations and countries were free to come, and no one has ever been persecuted within its borders.

New Hampshire was settled at Dover and Portsmouth the same year (1623). The latter was first named Strawberry Bank, from the quantity of strawberries that grew there. Thirty years after its settlement, the town contained but fifty or sixty families. The territory was several times a province of Massachusetts, and once of New York, but it became a royal province, and its Governor was appointed by the King (1741).

Vermont was claimed by New Hampshire, and, for a long time, it was known as the New Hampshire Grant. New York also set up a claim to it as a part of the grant to the Duke of York, and tried to make the settlers pay for their land again. "The Green Mountain Boys" would not submit to this, and they formed a government of their own, which they kept up until after the Revolution. The first name given to the country was New Connecticut.

Topics.—Tell what you can about—

I. THE SETTLEMENT OF MASSACHUSETTS.

1. The coming of the Pilgrims. 2. Forming a government. 3. The first winter. 4. Treaty with the red men. 5. The first crop. 6. The sources of wealth. 7. The Massachusetts Bay Colony. 8. Puritans. 9. Sufferings of the Puritans. 10. The Pilgrims and Puritans united. 11. Character of the Puritans. 12. Maine a part of Massachusetts.

II. THE SETTLEMENT OF CONNECTICUT.

1. First explorers. 2. The Connecticut Colony. 3. Pequod War. 4. New Haven Colony. 5. Union of New England Colonies. 6. Union of Connecticut colonies. 7. New England a royal province. 8. A charter concealed. 9. The seizure of Andros.

III. THE SETTLEMENT OF RHODE ISLAND.

1. Settlement of Providence. 2. Religious freedom.

IV. THE SETTLEMENT OF NEW HAMPSHIRE — VERMONT.

Chapter XI.

OTHER EVENTS IN NEW ENGLAND.

Teaching the Indians.—Early in the History of New England, an effort was made to teach the Indians, and lead them to Christ. Several missionaries were appointed by the governors of Massachusetts. One of the most noted was John Eliot, "the apostle to the Indians" (1646-1690). Eliot had great pity for the sons of the forest, and learned to talk with them in their own tongue. He visited all the tribes in the Massachusetts colonies, traveling on foot, and for days together his clothing was not dry, because of the many streams he was obliged to ford. The dusky savages listened to the preacher's words, and many professed to be Christians. Although it was very hard for them to learn the ways of white men, the seed sown did not seem wholly lost, as, when war came on, many refused to join in the war-dance, and clung to their new friends.

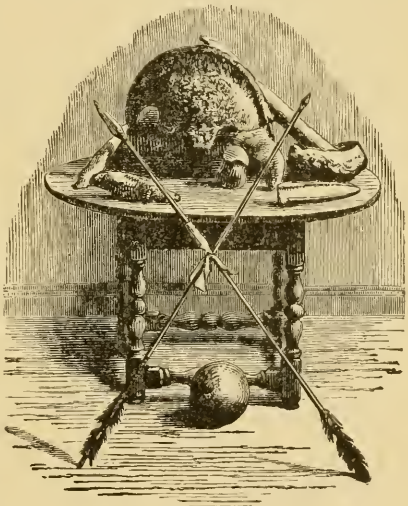
Indian Preachers and Poets.—In later days, some of the red men became ministers, and one of them, Samson Occum, visited England, where he was called the Indian Whitefield. At the planting of a memorial pine at Dartmouth College, in early times, three Indians, who had received their education at that school, composed the hymn, "When Shall We Three Meet Again?"

"Though in distant lands we sigh,
Parched beneath a burning sky,
Though the deep between us rolls,
Friendship shall unite our souls;
And in fancy's wide domain,
There we three shall meet again.

"When the dreams of life are fled,
When its wasted lamps are dead,
When in cold oblivion's shade,
Beauty, health, and strength are laid,—
Where immortal spirits reign,
There we three shall meet again."

* * * * *

King Philip's War.—Massasoit, the faithful friend of the whites, had two sons, one of whom was named Philip, the other, Alexander. After the death of Alexander, the authority passed to Philip, and he ruled the tribe. King Philip, as the Puritans called him, was a noble-hearted Indian, who loved his country and people well. At first, he was friendly to the whites, sending presents to them, and helping them against other tribes. But as he grew older, and saw how the whites were taking more and more of his hunting grounds; how they were clearing the forests, and building villages on the pleasant places where his fathers were buried, he became sad, and brooded long over the wrongs of his people.



KING PHILIP'S ARMS.

At last, Philip made a great effort to drive the English from his native soil. His chief home was at Mount Hope, near Fall River, Massachusetts, but he left it and hastened from tribe to tribe, inducing nearly all, from Maine to Connecticut, to join his league, and war soon broke out

all along the line. Village after village was burned, and men, women, and children were killed. There was no safety in the field, at home, or at church. The colonists made haste to defend themselves, and a thousand men were sent against the stronghold of the enemy in the swamps of Rhode Island (1676). The Indians were defeated, and nearly all were killed; but Philip kept up the struggle until he was hunted down and shot in a swamp, where he had fled for safety. This war cost the colonists six hundred lives, twelve or thirteen towns, and every eleventh home was destroyed.

During the struggle, King Philip's wife and child were captured by a force sent against him. Hearing of this, he exclaimed, "My heart breaks, and I am ready to die!" His child was a boy of nine years, and the last of the race of Massasoit. The Puritans, who owed so much to the grandfather, sold the child as a slave to Bermuda.—*Higginson.*

The Salem Witchcraft.—In the days of the Puritans, nearly everybody in the Old World, as well as the New, believed in what was called witchcraft. That is, some persons were supposed to possess an influence which came from the Evil One, and it was believed that they had the power to cast a spell upon others, causing them to act very strangely. In this way both men and beasts were thought to be bewitched.

"Children were said to bark like dogs, to mew like cats, to fall on the floor, to fly like geese," and one jumped up in church and shouted, "Parson, your text is too long!" Hawthorne says: "They complained of being pinched, and pricked with pins, and otherwise tormented by the shapes of men and women, who were supposed to have the power to haunt them invisibly. Often, in the midst of friends, they would pretend to be seized with strange convulsions, when they would cry out that the witches were afflicting them."

In Salem, Massachusetts, in 1692, there lived a minister by the name of Parris, whose daughter and niece were ill of a strange disease, and the doctors pronounced them bewitched. Mr. Parris accused certain women, who were

arrested, and the people became much excited. Parents accused their children, and children their parents. One minister, "an intelligent and godly man," was hanged. The panic raged for more than a year. Nineteen were hanged, one was pressed to death, one hundred and fifty were thrown into prison, and some two hundred were accused.

Many devoted sons and daughters clung to their parents, visited them in prison in defiance of a bloodthirsty mob, kept by their side on the way to execution; expressed their love, sympathy, and reverence to the last; and by brave and perilous enterprises, got possession of their remains, and bore them back under the cover of midnight to their own thresholds, and to graves kept consecrated by their prayers and tears.—*Upham's History of the Salem Witchcraft.*

At last, people began to come to their senses. Parris was driven from Salem, others asked forgiveness for their folly and wickedness in acting as accusers or judges, and there were no more arrests for witchcraft. It is said that one Noyes, who had taken an active part in the proceedings against witches, regained favor "only by a full confession and a promise to devote the remainder of his life to deeds of mercy." Judge Sewall was so sorry for what he had done that he rose in his pew, in the Old South meeting-house, on fast day, and read a paper to the whole congregation, in which he bewailed his great offense.*

Topics.—Tell about—

1. Eliot, the apostle to the Indians.
2. Indian preachers and poets.
3. King Philip's war.
4. The Salem witchcraft.

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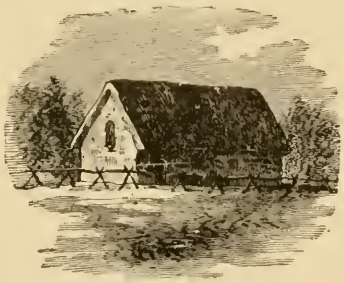
*It is well known that no exclusive reproach can with justice be cast upon any part of New England on account of a decision which equally prevailed in the most enlightened countries of Europe, and received the countenance of the most learned and intelligent men and upright magistrates. In contemplating this sorrowful page in the history of our ancestors, we must bear in mind that, as I have already intimated, no peculiar reproach attaches to them. They acted upon principles which all professed, and in which the sincere in all parts of Christendom reposed an undoubting faith.—*Hawthorne.*

Chapter XII.

EARLY DAYS IN NEW ENGLAND.

Treatment of Wrong-Doers.—We have learned that the pioneers of New England came over the sea and established homes in the wilderness, in order that they might worship God in their own way. They tried to do what they believed to be right, and private conduct was carefully watched. They sought to prevent wrong-doing by making the laws very strict. The Sabbath-breaker was flogged, the swearer had his tongue put in a cleft stick, or his feet set in stocks. Scolds were gagged and placed at their own doors "for all comers and goers to gaze at," or ducked in running water, and for a time fines were laid on those who used tobacco on the street or near any house.

Meeting-Houses and Church-Going.—The first meeting-houses were built of logs, the roofs being thatched with long grass cut from the marshes. The windows were very small, and, as glass was scarce, the panes were sometimes made of oiled paper. At nine o'clock on Sabbath morning a drum was beaten, or a horn blown, to call the people to church. Men and women walked soberly, side by side, the men in sad-colored mantles, and sometimes carrying guns; the women in sober gowns, kerchiefs, and hoods. The boys sat in the gallery, or on the steps of the huge pulpit, and were kept



THE FIRST MEETING-HOUSE.

in order by the tithing-man, who dealt a smart blow with his wand when a boy fell asleep. The men and women sat apart, and the old men, the young men, the old women, and young women occupied different parts of the house. No fire was built to warm the church, even in winter. The congregation sang the most solemn tunes without instrumental music, and the services lasted from three to four hours.

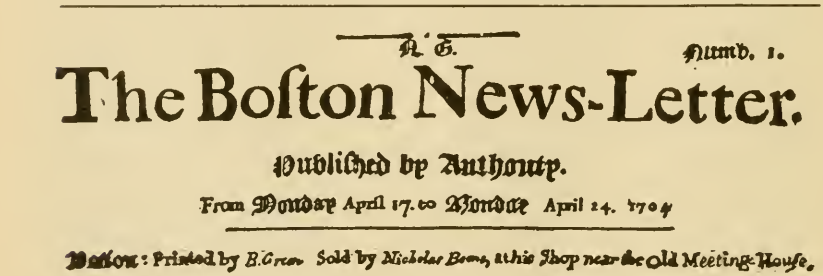
GOING TO MEETING IN SUMMER.

Schools.—Near the church the Puritans always built a school-house, and as early as 1635, Philemon Purmount was "entreated" by the people of Boston "to become school-master for ye teaching and nurturing of all children among us."

In 1642 it became the law, in Puritan New England, that none of the brethren shall suffer so much barbarism in their families as not to teach their children and apprentices so much learning as may enable them perfectly to read the English tongue.—*Bancroft.*

Harvard University was founded in 1636, and a few years later each family was required to give a shilling in money or a peck of corn every year for the support of the school. In 1700 the ministers brought together a number of books, which they gave for the foundation of a college in Connecticut, and this was the beginning of Yale.

The Printing-Press.—The first printing-press was set up in Cambridge (1639), and the first book printed was the Freeman's Oath. Sermons and religious tracts were the


N. E. Numb. 1.

The Boſton News-Letter.

Publiſhed by Authority.

From Monday April 17. to Monday April 24. 1704

Boſton: Printed by B. Green. Sold by Nicholas Boone, at his Shop near the Old Meeting-Houſe.

most common works published. The Boston News-Letter was the first newspaper printed in any of the colonies.

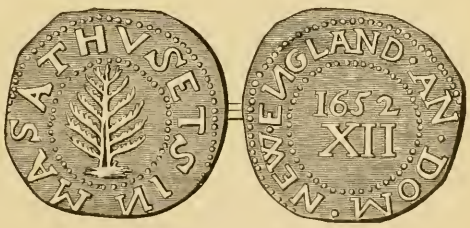
New England Homes.—Most of the early settlers lived in log cabins. Chimneys were very large, and built on the outside. The fire-place was a huge affair, with its crane, andirons, and "clean-winged hearth," around which old and young gathered to spend the winter evenings.

The New England table had its pewter dishes, polished by the good housewife's hand, while here and there, among the well-to-do, one might have seen a silver tankard, an heirloom in the family. In the earlier days, tea and coffee were unknown. Mush and milk, bean porridge, Indian pudding, rye and Indian bread, pork and beans, boiled beef and pork, and succotash were common food.

Dress, at Home and Abroad.—The men wore bell-crown hats, ruffs about the neck, jerkins instead of coats, short breeches, with stockings reaching to the knee, low shoes, and a short mantle instead of an overcoat. When dressed up they wore bright belts, with gold or silver buttons, and huge boots turned down at the top. When at work the young women were clad in plain homespun, but at church they wore silk hoods, lace kerchiefs around the neck, slashed sleeves, and embroidered caps. The law required all to dress according to their means, and if young people wore garments they could not afford, they were brought before the court and fined.

Training Days.—Every month, all males between sixteen and sixty were called out to learn to be soldiers. The drums beat, the men marched in ranks, with huge muskets, or with long pikes. The soldier who had a gun wore a belt for his sword and cartridges, and carried a rest, or iron fork, to be stuck in the ground for the support of his heavy weapon, and also a slow match to touch it off. Some of the soldiers wore helmets of steel and breast-plates of iron, while others were content with coats wadded with cotton to stop the arrows of the Indian.

Chief Occupations.—Farming, hunting, and fishing were the chief occupations at first, but the manufacture of cotton and woolen, of glass, salt, tar, and powder gradually became quite common. From timber, which grew everywhere, ships were built, one of the first of which bore the name, "Blessing of the Bay." They carried on consid-



PINE-TREE SHILLING.

erable trade, but lacked money, and used wampum, skins, and even bullets, in its place, until Massachusetts coined shillings and other pieces of silver of less value (1652). These silver coins had the image of a pine on one side, and were called "pine-tree shillings," etc.

Amusements — Traveling.—The theater, dancing, cards, and dice were forbidden, and few other amusements were allowed. People usually traveled on foot or on horseback, and the bride often rode on a horse behind her husband to her new home. Chaises and gigs with wooden springs gradually came into use. People living near the coast journeyed on sloops so small as to be navigated by a man and a boy.

Slavery.—Slavery in a mild form existed in all the colonies, the slaves, as a rule, being employed as house servants rather than as field hands. At first, the practice of holding men in bondage was strongly opposed by some, and the legislature of Massachusetts sent back the first cargo of negroes landed in Boston (1646). But some of the leading clergymen sustained slavery, and it was finally established, and continued to exist until after the Revolutionary War.

Topics.—Tell of—

I. EARLY DAYS IN NEW ENGLAND.

1. Treatment of wrong-doers.
2. Meeting-houses and church-going.
3. Schools.
4. The printing-press.
5. New England homes.
6. Dress, at home and abroad.
7. Training days.
8. Chief occupations.
9. Amusements—Traveling.
10. Slavery.

Chapter XIII.

NEW JERSEY AND THE QUAKERS.

A Part of New Netherlands.—When the Dutch built their little log fort on Manhattan Island (1614), they also put up a redoubt on the opposite shore, in what is now called New Jersey, and claimed the whole region as a part of New Netherlands. The Swedes, Danes, and English came in as settlers, and much trouble followed, until all were driven out, and the Dutch had the land to themselves.

Grant to Berkeley and Carteret.—When the Duke of York came into possession of New Netherlands (1664), he sold to Lord John Berkeley and Sir George Carteret all that part between the Hudson and the Delaware rivers. Carteret had been governor of the island of Jersey, in the British Channel, and the purchase was named New Jersey. The first settlement, a little cluster of houses, was called Elizabethtown (now Elizabeth), after Carteret's wife, Elizabeth, and it became the seat of government.

A Liberal Charter.—The proprietors gave a charter assuring political and religious freedom to all; they also offered land free of rent for five years, after which an annual rent of half a penny an acre was to be paid. The liberal charter, the quick soil, and the mild climate attracted many settlers; and all went well until the rents were due, when a part of the people, who had received their lands from other owners, refused to pay, and much trouble followed.

The Quakers.—In 1674, Berkeley, who was then a very old man, sold his interest in New Jersey to John Fenwick in trust for Edward Byllinge. These men were Quakers,

and the land was bought as a home for the people of their faith. A little later, it passed into the hands of William Penn and a few other influential Friends (Quakers), who, desiring a territory where they could establish a government of their own, brought about a division of the land, Carteret taking East Jersey, and the Quakers, West Jersey (1676). The earliest settlements of the Quakers were made at Salem and Burlington.

The Friends.—The religious society of Friends, or Quakers, as they are called in the United States, was founded by George Fox, who was born in England, in 1624, and began his work as a preacher when about twenty-four years of age, continuing it until his death, in 1690. The Quakers believe in what they call the *inner light*, the voice of God in the soul. They regard all men as equal in rank; and are opposed to war, to slavery, and to the death-penalty as a punishment for crime. They allow no titles, dress with great plainness, and their speech is simple. They trust the law of kindness, and carry no weapons for defense, even among savages.

Government of West Jersey.—All power was placed in the hands of the people, and every man might choose or be chosen to office. The legislature was made up of persons elected by ballot; justices and constables were chosen in the same manner. The law declared that every man should be free; and it said, "No person shall, at any time, or in any way, or on any pretense, be called in question, or in the least punished or hurt for opinion in religion." There could be no imprisonment for debt; courts were managed without lawyers; no one was permitted to sell rum to the Indians; and helpless orphans were to be educated by the state.

The colony had trouble with the agent of the Duke of York, who wished to levy customs on their ships ascending the Delaware; but he finally yielded every claim to the territory and the government, and the light of peace dawned. The "men who said *thee* and *thou*, and wore their hats in presence of beggar or king," increased in

numbers and were happy. "They met in the wilderness as men, and founded society on equal rights." (*See Bancroft's History, Vol. I.*)

Purchase of East Jersey.—In 1682, Penn and a few other Friends bought East Jersey from the heirs of Carteret, and Robert Barclay was appointed governor. Barclay was a young Scotch Quaker, who afterwards rose to great eminence as a writer in that denomination. Quakers from the Old World, and from Long Island, flocked to East Jersey, but they had to endure the tyranny of Edmond Andros, governor of New York, who claimed the right to rule over them, until he was driven from the country. (See page 60.)

Trouble About Titles.—Some of the settlers had bought their lands of the Indians, some from the original Dutch owners, others received grants from Nicolls, the first English governor, and some from Berkeley and Carteret. This led to great trouble about titles, as well as rents, and the proprietors, wearied with contentions and subjected to losses, were glad to give up their rights to Queen Anne (1702), and the two colonies were made one. It was ruled by the governor of New York until 1738, when it was made an independent colony, and so remained until the Revolution.

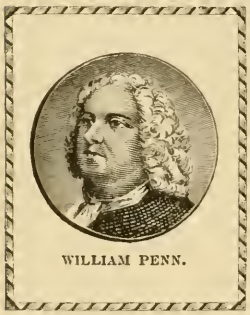
Topics.—Tell what you can about—

1. New Jersey as a part of New Netherlands.
2. The grant to Berkeley and Carteret.
3. The liberal charter.
4. The Quakers.
5. The Friends.
6. Government of West Jersey.
7. Purchase of East Jersey.
8. Trouble about titles.

Chapter XIV.

WILLIAM PENN AND HIS COLONY.

William Penn, the founder of Pennsylvania, was the son of an English admiral. He was well educated and rich, but became a Quaker, to the great sorrow of his father, who turned him out of doors, but, after a time, restored him to favor.



WILLIAM PENN.

Penn's Plan.—Penn was very deeply grieved because of the wrongs his brethren, the Quakers, had to endure, and, after the death of his father, he formed the plan of leading them forth to found homes in the New World. King Charles owed the admiral £16,000, and Penn offered to take payment in lands. The king gave him a vast region west of the Delaware, which, on account of the forest, Penn wished to name Sylvania; but the king insisted on calling it Penn-Sylvania, meaning "Penn's Woods."

Treatment of Settlers.—Penn crossed the sea to his new purchase in the ship Welcome. He came to found a state where men should dwell "as free and happy as they could be;" and told the people who had already settled on his lands, "Whatever sober and free men can reasonably desire for the security and improvement of their own happiness, I shall heartily comply with." Later, he said, "If the people want of me anything that would make them happier, I shall readily grant it."

Pledge to the Indians.—Soon after his arrival, Penn met a council of Indian chiefs under a spreading elm. He told them that no advantage should be taken by either side. "The friendship between you and me I will not compare to a chain; for that the rains might rust, and the falling tree might break. We are the same as if one man's body were to be divided into two parts; we are all one flesh and blood." The Indians said, "We will live in love with William Penn and his children so long as the sun and moon shall shine."

Philadelphia Founded.—Penn bought the land of the Indian chiefs, and also a neck of land from the Swedes between the Schuylkill and the Delaware, where he marked out a town, hoping it might become a "faire and greene country towne" with gardens around every house (1683). He named the place Philadelphia, the "City of Brotherly Love." Within a year there were more than a hundred houses, and the place continued to grow rapidly.

Liberal Laws.—The laws were made by a legislature chosen by the people. No tax was needed to support the poor; everyone was allowed to worship in his own way; and every child was to be taught a useful trade.

Penn Returns to England.—After two years Penn went back to England, where he remained for fifteen years. When he returned with his family, intending to make the New World his home, he found a great deal to annoy. Many seemed ungrateful for the favors he had bestowed; and there was so much trouble that he resolved to return to his native land.

A Thrifty People.—A good class of people came to settle in Pennsylvania, among whom were many thousands of Germans. The Quakers, who formed a large portion of the settlers, were noted for their good order and thrift. The inhabitants devoted themselves to farming, ship-building, and commerce. Every house (1748) had its garden and orchard, and "peaches were so abundant that the very pigs were fed on them." Common schools were established, and the first girls' school in the United States was founded at Lewiston, Delaware, when that territory was a part of Pennsylvania. At the time of the Revolution, the colony ranked third in population and influence.

PENN'S TREATY WITH THE INDIANS.

Topics.— Tell what you can about—

1. William Penn.
2. Penn's plan—Grant.
3. Treatment of settlers.
4. Pledge to the Indians.
5. Philadelphia.
6. Liberal laws.
7. Penn's return to England.
8. A thrifty people.

Chapter XV.

DELAWARE, OR NEW SWEDEN—MARYLAND.

DELAWARE.

Its Earliest Explorer.—Lord Delaware, who was for a time governor of Virginia, in exploring the coast (1610), sailed up a broad and beautiful river, afterwards called by his name. A score of years later, the Dutch tried to plant a colony there, but the settlers were killed by the savages. Soon after, Gustavus Adolphus, King of Sweden, "The Lion of the North," made up his mind to send a colony to America. Settlers were to take their wives and children, but no slaves were to be held.

Settled by Swedes and Finns.—Gustavus Adolphus was killed in battle, and his little daughter, Christina, only six years old, was made queen. Notwithstanding this, a large number of Swedes and Finns came over (1638). They built a fort, naming it Christiana, after the girl queen. The colony took the name New Sweden, and for a time it prospered.

Under Dutch Rule.—The Dutch, who claimed the land, and wanted all the trade with the red men, did not like the

way things were going; so, Peter Stuyvesant sailed up the Delaware, captured the Swedish fort, and brought the colony under Dutch rule.

English Rule.—When the Duke of York took possession of New Netherlands, it became subject to the English. In this way it came about that little Delaware belonged, in turn, to the Swedes, the Dutch, and the English. It also formed a part of Pennsylvania, but became a separate colony (1703).

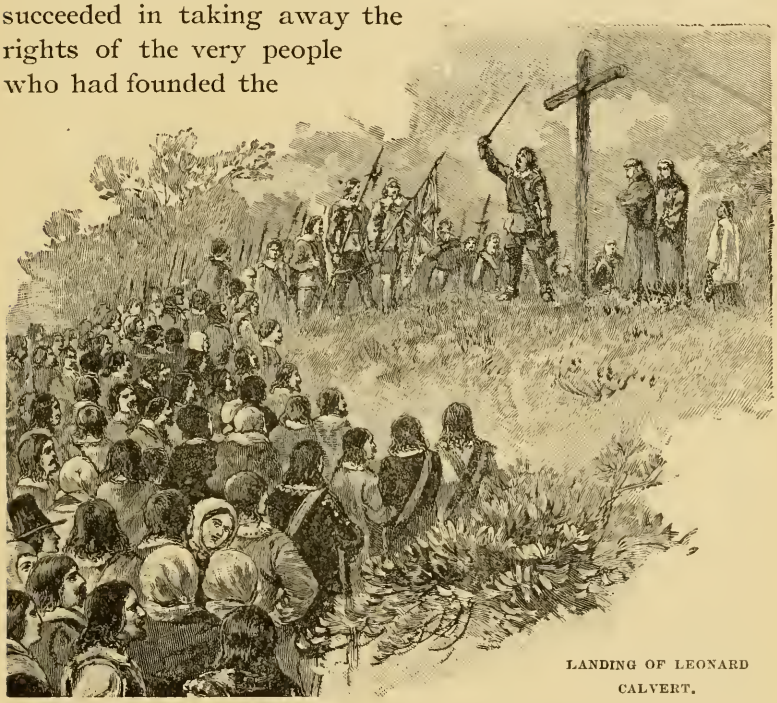
MARYLAND.

Its Name—Religious Freedom.—Lord Baltimore, a Catholic, seeking a refuge for his persecuted brethren in England, secured from King Charles I. a grant of land north of the Potomac. Lord Baltimore died before the charter was signed; but his son Cecil, the second Lord Baltimore, took his place. The tract was named Mary's Land, in honor of Queen Henrietta Maria, wife of the reigning king. Under the charter, all freemen were to have the right to take part in making the laws; and, from the first, all Christian sects were allowed to worship as they saw fit.

The First Colony.—Leonard Calvert, the second Lord Baltimore's brother, went out with the first colonists, some two hundred in number, sailing in the Ark and the Dove. Their first settlement was named St. Mary's (1634). It grew rapidly, and, as the Indians had tilled the lands, food was easily raised, and there was plenty for all. "The Indian women taught the wives of the new-comers to make bread of maize; and the warriors of the tribe joined the huntsmen in the chase." Tobacco grew well, and slaves were introduced to cultivate it, and so the people lived about the same as their Virginia neighbors.

Trouble with Clayborne.—In 1631, William Clayborne had obtained from Charles I. a license to trade with the

Indians, and had established posts for that purpose on Kent Island, in the Chesapeake, and also near the mouth of the Susquehanna. Clayborne refused to acknowledge the authority of Governor Calvert, and took up arms to defend his own claims, but was defeated. Some time after, the Puritans, under Clayborne, became so strong that they succeeded in taking away the rights of the very people who had founded the



LANDING OF LEONARD CALVERT.

colony and given them shelter when they fled from persecution in Virginia. At last the king settled the trouble by recalling the charter, and establishing the Church of England. A descendant of Lord Baltimore, through the influence of the king, finally gained control of the government, and religious freedom was restored.

Topics.—Tell about—

I. DELAWARE.

1. Its earliest explorer.
2. Settlement by Swedes and Finns.
3. Under Dutch rule.
4. English rule.

II. MARYLAND.

1. Its name—Religious freedom.
2. The first colony.
3. Trouble with Clayborne.

CHAPTER XVI.

THE CAROLINAS AND GEORGIA.

Early Settlements.—As we have learned (*page 34*), French Huguenots attempted to establish a colony at Port Royal more than forty years before the settlement of Jamestown. Nearly a hundred years had come and gone, when a poorer class of planters from Virginia built their rude homes on the Chowan River, in North Carolina. A little later, emigrants from New England, and from Barbadoes, settled at the mouth of Cape Fear River (1653), and other scattered settlements sprung up.

Grant of Charles II.—Although Spain claimed the territory, and had never given up a foot of it to England, King Charles II. granted all of what is now North Carolina and South Carolina, and much more, to eight proprietors, most of whom were noblemen at his court.

Plans of the Proprietors.—There were to be orders of nobility, the same as in European countries. Earls and barons were to own the lands. There were to be lords of manors, and leet-men, or tenants, and slaves, the latter to be under the absolute control of their masters. Power

was to be kept in the hands of the wealthy, and no one owning less than fifty acres of land could vote.

The Settlement of Charleston.—The first colonists sent out by the new proprietors went (1670) to the very spot where the French had been so long before, but they soon removed to the present site of Charleston, then called Oyster Point. Attracted by the mild climate, settlers flocked in from all directions. There were Dutch, English, Scotch, Irish, and French Huguenots. The latter were numbered by thousands, and they brought the olive, the mulberry, and many varieties of the pear from their own sunny land to the banks of the Cooper River, where they opened fine plantations.

Failure of the Great Plan.—With these different classes of people, living far apart, in a new country, it was not easy for the proprietors to carry out their plans, and the colonists were allowed to have an assembly of their own choosing. Finally, the proprietors had so much trouble about rents, taxes, and rights, that they sold their lands to the king, and two royal provinces, North and South Carolina, were established, each having a governor appointed by the crown, with a legislature chosen by the people. Thus they remained until the Revolution.

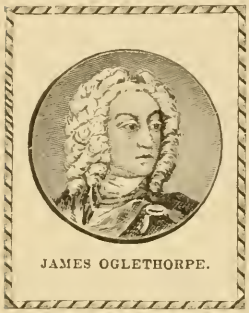
The Rice Plant Introduced.—"At a very early period the captain of a ship from Madagascar gave to one of the governors a bag of seed rice, saying that it was much esteemed for food in Eastern countries. The governor shared it with his friends, and they planted it in different soils to test its fitness for the climate. It lived and thrived, and this was the beginning of rice culture in the United States." In 1691, the legislature rewarded the invention of new methods for cleansing the seed, and Carolina rice came to be esteemed the best in the world. Large tracts were given to its cultivation, the wealth of the colony increased very rapidly, and swarms of negro slaves were required in the rice fields, where, it was claimed, white men could not labor. In this way the white people of South Carolina were led to regard slavery as a "divine institution."

Increase of Slaves.—To secure negro slaves, and rid themselves of labor, became the great object of the planters, and the negro race was multiplied so rapidly by importations that, in a few years, we are told, the blacks in the low

country were to the whites in the proportion of twenty-two to twelve, a proportion that had no parallel north of the West Indies.—*Bancroft.*

GEORGIA.

General James Oglethorpe, the founder of Georgia, had fought against the Turks, and gained honor as a soldier. He was a member of Parliament, and the friend of many of the leading men of his day.



JAMES OGLETHORPE.

Oglethorpe's Plan.— In those days a man who owed a debt, and could not pay, was sometimes thrust into prison, and kept there for years. Oglethorpe had a kind heart, and greatly pitied such prisoners, some of whom he was able to aid. But this did not fully satisfy him, and he formed a plan by which the poor and unfortunate might find homes and begin a new life in America.

The Charter.—Oglethorpe obtained a charter from King George II., granting the land between the Savannah and Altamaha Rivers, and extending westward to the Pacific, to a board of trustees. This vast tract was named Georgia, after the king, and was "held in trust for the poor." The seal of the colony represented a group of silk-worms at work, with the motto, "Not for Themselves, but for Others."

The First Colony.—Oglethorpe sailed with one hundred and twenty persons, who were "penniless, but of good repute," though taken mostly from the prisons (1733). They landed where Savannah now stands, and Oglethorpe pitched his tent under four large pines, where he dwelt for nearly a year. Although the trustees held the king's title to their lands, Governor Oglethorpe was very careful to

pay the Indians for them, and they always remained his true friends.

Conduct of the Indians.—The Indians received Oglethorpe with strange ceremonies, and a chief presented him with a large buffalo skin, with the head and feathers of an eagle painted on the inside. The chief then said, "The eagle signifies swiftness, and the buffalo, strength. The English are swift as a bird to fly over the seas, and as strong as a beast before their enemies. The eagle's feathers are soft and signify love; the buffalo's skin is warm, and means protection; therefore, love and protect our families."

Slavery and Rum.—The charter for the colony of Georgia said nothing about the introduction of negroes, but as the colony was founded as a home for the poor and the unfortunate, the trustees held that it virtually prohibited slavery; and Oglethorpe, who was the true friend of the negroes, as well as the whites, did all in his power to prevent its introduction. The importation of rum was also prohibited by the trustees. The rules of the trustees excluding rum and slavery were approved by the king and became law (1735).

But the colonists, especially those who had settled at Savannah, soon began to clamor for slaves. They claimed that white men could not work in the heat; that such work would bring on "fevers, fluxes, colics, tremors, swimming of the head, palsies," and other diseases. So it came about that the penniless men, who had received the bounty of the trustees, accused them of ruining their prospects by denying the privilege of owning slaves. The colonists wanted rum also. After a struggle lasting more than sixteen years, the trustees were obliged to yield; slavery was introuced, and rum was imported. The plans of Oglethorpe had failed.

The Wesleys and Whitefield.—Among those who went to Georgia with the second expedition of Oglethorpe, were John and Charles Wesley. John longed to spread the gospel among the settlers and their neighbors, the Indians. He spent two years in the colony, but was not very successful, and returned to England. A little later, George Whitefield (*whit field*), the eloquent preacher, who held

open-air meetings, attended by thousands of people. He founded a "Home for Orphans" at Savannah, and supported it with money contributed at his meetings. Whitefield favored slavery, and, partly through his influence, it was introduced, after Oglethorpe left.

Trouble with the Spaniards.—During the war between England and Spain, Oglethorpe led a force of whites and Indians against their Spanish neighbors at St. Augustine, Florida (1740), but his expedition failed. Two years later the Spaniards attacked Savannah, but were utterly defeated.

Georgia a Royal Province.—Oglethorpe left soon after, and the other trustees whom the king had appointed took charge of the colony, but many of their laws were disliked by the people, and their complaints became so bitter that the trustees gladly gave up their charter, and Georgia became a royal province.

The Settlers and Their Work.—Many of the settlers were Moravians, a persecuted sect of Christians from Austria. There was also a settlement of Scotch Highlanders, who continued to wear the Highland garb. Both Moravians and Highlanders took great pains in teaching their children, but the rest of the colony cared little for schools. For a time the raising of silk-worms and the manufacture of silk were encouraged, and persons skilled in this industry were sent to the colony. The Queen of England had a dress made of the first silk produced.

Oglethorpe's Character—Later Years.—In 1743, Oglethorpe sailed for England, never again to behold the colony to which he consecrated the disinterested toils of ten years. Gentle in nature and affable; merciful to the prisoner; a father to the emigrant; the unwavering friend of Wesley; the constant benefactor of the Moravians; honestly zealous for the conversion of the Indians; invoking for the negro the panoply of the gospel; the reliever of the poor—his name became another expression for "vast benevolence of soul."—*Bancroft.*

Oglethorpe lived to be nearly five-score years of age, his figure the finest ever seen, his eye still undimmed, his mind clear. "He was like the sound of the lyre, as it still vibrates after the spirit that sweeps the strings has passed away."

Topics.—Tell what you can about—

I. THE CAROLINAS.

1. Early settlements.
2. The grant of Charles II.
3. Plans of the proprietors.
4. The settlement of Charleston.
5. Failure of the great plan.
6. Introduction of the rice plant.
7. Increase of slaves.

II. GEORGIA.

1. General James Oglethorpe.
2. Oglethorpe's plan.
3. The charter.
4. The first colony.
5. The conduct of the Indians.
6. Slavery and rum.
7. The Wesleys and Whitefield.
8. Trouble with the Spaniards.
9. Georgia a royal province.
10. The settlers and their work.
11. Oglethorpe's later years.

Chapter XVII.

THE FRENCH IN AMERICA.

Explorations and Claims.—We have learned of the discovery of the St. Lawrence by Cartier (*page 21*), and of the French claim to all the region drained by that mighty stream. Three years before the settlement of Jamestown, Virginia, De Monts (*de mawng'*) a French Huguenot, had established a settlement at Port Royal (1604), in the French province of Acadia, which included Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and a part of Maine, a region greatly prized on account of the valuable fisheries near its coast.

A Frenchman by the name of Champlain founded Quebec (1608), and pushed his way southward to the beautiful lake that now bears his name.

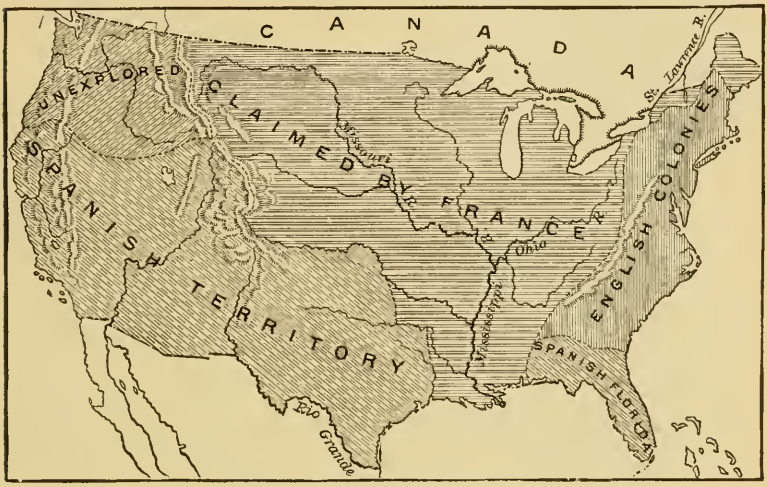
French missionaries, anxious to save the souls of the savages, and French traders, wishing to procure furs, pressed farther and farther up the St. Lawrence, to the very head of the Great Lakes, establishing a trading post at Sault Ste. Marie (*soo st. mary*) as early as 1668. Joliet (*zho le a'*) and Marquette (*mar ket'*) reached the Mississippi (1673), and Father Hennepin explored its upper waters (1680). La Salle (*-sahl*) discovered the Ohio (1682), and sailed down the Mississippi to its mouth. French settlements were begun in Louisiana in 1699.

So it came about that the French claimed and held all the country along the St. Lawrence, the Great Lakes; and the Mississippi Valley to the Alleghanies. Here and there, over this vast region, they had missionary stations and trading posts. Between Canada and Louisiana they established a line of some sixty forts, by means of which they hoped to hold the very heart of the continent against all comers.

The French and Indians.—The French lived with the Indians, adopted their ways, made wives of the squaws, and preached the gospel in the Indian wigwams. The Indians were their friends, and became allies in war against the English. The French supplied the Indians with guns and ammunition, and taught them to build strong forts.

Contests Between England and France.— For three-fourths of a century (1689-1763), frequent contests took place between England and France, and it was natural for the colonists to take part with their parent countries. But this was only one of the causes of the wars that took place under different names, though really but one long struggle, to decide whether the French or English should rule America.

Other Causes of Trouble.—The two nations claimed the same territory, the grants of the English extending to the west, right across vast regions held by the French; both nations wished to control the fisheries on the eastern coast; and both desired to secure the entire fur trade. Then, too, the French were Catholics, and the English were



CLAIMS OF DIFFERENT NATIONS.

Protestants, and there was strong hatred between them. All these causes led to the wars known as King William's War, Queen Anne's War, King George's War, and the French and Indian War.

Topics.—Tell about—

1. Explorations and claims of the French.
2. The French and Indians.
3. Contests between England and France.
4. Other causes of trouble.

Chapter XVIII.

THREE INDIAN WARS.

King William's War (1689-1697) was so called because William III. ruled in England at that time. The French king declared war against England, and the governor of New France induced many Indians to join the French, and war was made on the defenseless settlements along the border in Maine, New Hampshire, and New York.

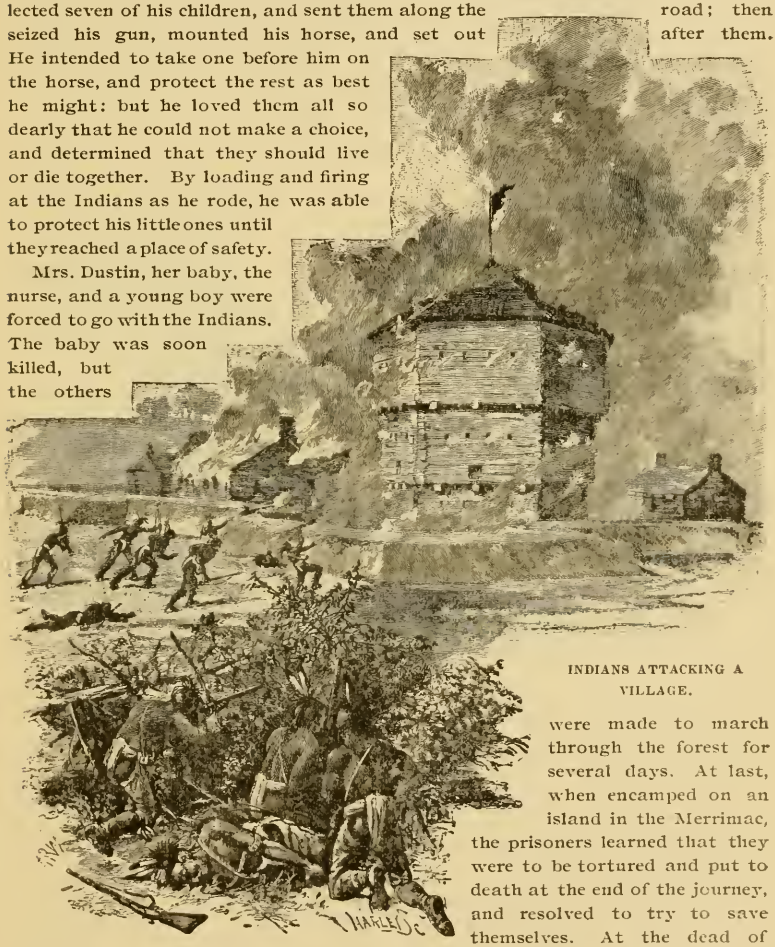
Indian Warfare.—These wars were more bloody than any that had occurred before. The Indians seldom attacked the whites in the open field, but prowled through the forest to butcher lonely families, and destroy small villages. Everybody lived in constant fear. Mothers who watched their babes, children at play, and fathers in the field, were liable at any moment to be struck down by the arrow, the bullet, or the tomahawk. Nearly every village had its block house, where the inhabitants could flee for safety.

Attack on Dover.—The first outbreak occurred at Dover, New Hampshire. One pleasant summer evening, two squaws applied for lodging at each of the five garrisoned houses. They were admitted to all but one. In the night the squaws unbolted the gates, and gave a signal to Indians hidden near, who rushed in to torture and to slay. Two families were killed, one was aroused by the barking of a dog in time to prepare for defense, and two were taken prisoners, but managed to escape. (*See map, page 94.*)

Attack on Schenectady.—The following winter, a party of French and Indians made their way from Canada on snow-shoes, and attacked Schenectady. Men, women, and children were dragged from their beds and massacred. The few who escaped fled, half-naked, through the snow, to Albany, their burning houses lighting up the dark sky.

The Story of Mrs. Dustin.—Haverhill, Massachusetts, was attacked, and about forty people murdered or captured. The savages approached the house of Thomas Dustin, who was at work in the field. He hastened to his home, but was too late to save his wife, who was ill in bed with a young babe beside her. He collected seven of his children, and sent them along the road; then seized his gun, mounted his horse, and set out after them. He intended to take one before him on the horse, and protect the rest as best he might: but he loved them all so dearly that he could not make a choice, and determined that they should live or die together. By loading and firing at the Indians as he rode, he was able to protect his little ones until they reached a place of safety.

Mrs. Dustin, her baby, the nurse, and a young boy were forced to go with the Indians. The baby was soon killed, but the others were made to march through the forest for several days. At last, when encamped on an island in the Merrimac, the prisoners learned that they were to be tortured and put to death at the end of the journey, and resolved to try to save themselves. At the dead of night, when the Indians were asleep, the prisoners arose, and with tomahawks made way with ten of the savages. They then entered a canoe, and escaped to a settlement, and it was not long before Mrs. Dustin was restored to her family. A monument near Penacook, New Hampshire, commemorates this brave deed.



INDIANS ATTACKING A VILLAGE.

Union of Colonies.—The northern colonies now formed a union to protect themselves against their enemies, and carry the war into Canada. An expedition was planned to capture Montreal, and another to capture Quebec, but both failed. The English took Acadia, but when peace was declared (1697), it was given back to the French.

INDIAN CHIEFS IN FULL DRESS.

Queen Anne's War broke out four years later (1702-1713), and as England was fighting Spain, as well as France, there was a contest between the colonists in South Carolina, and the Spaniards and Indians in Florida. All the horrors of Indian warfare were renewed in the northern colonies. Village after village was burned, and men, women, and children were killed or carried into captivity.

Attack on Deerfield.—It was during this war that Deerfield, in Western Massachusetts, was attacked and burned.

Forty dead bodies were consumed in the flames, and over one hundred captives were carried off to Canada, through the deep snow. On the way, many perished from hunger and cold, and those who survived were sold to the French as slaves, but were kindly treated by their masters.

Among those who were taken prisoners was a clergyman, John Williams, his wife, and six children. Mrs. Williams was killed on the journey, but her husband was redeemed, and, with five children, was brought back to his old home. The youngest daughter was adopted by a family of Catholic Indians, embraced their faith, married a chief, and, though she came back to see her white friends, they never could persuade her to remain among them; she preferred her own home in the wigwam.

King George's War (1744-1748).—During this war, an expedition was sent against the French stronghold, Louisburg. Four thousand men from Massachusetts, New Hampshire, and Connecticut, leaving their wives and children to plant their fields, set out to capture this "Gibraltar of America," on Cape Breton Island. Although the attacking party had but twenty-one field pieces, and there were one hundred and seven cannon inside the fort, the place surrendered after a siege of but fifty days (1745). The fall of this stronghold gave great joy to the people of New England, and the colonial troops much confidence. At the treaty of peace (1748), the post was given back to the French, to the great sorrow of those who had conquered it. They regarded this as a "black day in their calendar."

Topics.—Tell about—

I. KING WILLIAM'S WAR.
   1. Indian warfare. 2. Attack on Dover. 3. Attack on Schenectady. 4. The story of Mrs. Dustin. 5. Union of colonies.

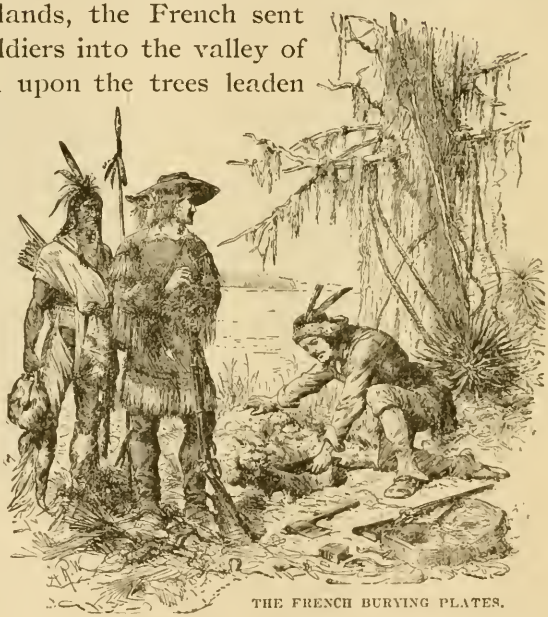
II. QUEEN ANNE'S WAR.
   1. Attack on Deerfield.

III. KING GEORGE'S WAR.
   1. Siege of Louisburg.

Chapter XIX.

THE FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR.

But a few years had passed before the French and English were again at war (1754-1763). In order that they might hold the lands, the French sent three hundred soldiers into the valley of the Ohio, to nail upon the trees leaden plates bearing the arms of France; or, as some tell us, to bury them in the earth. They also put up a line of forts, and drove out all the English traders who found their way from the settlements east of the mountains. The English tried to survey the land which their sovereigns had granted them, but the French would allow no intruders, and the surveyors were forced to leave.



THE FRENCH BURYING PLATES.

Washington's Mission.—All this was very displeasing to Virginia, whose grant of land extended to the Pacific, and Governor Dinwiddie sent George Washington, then a promising young man of twenty-one, to demand an ex-

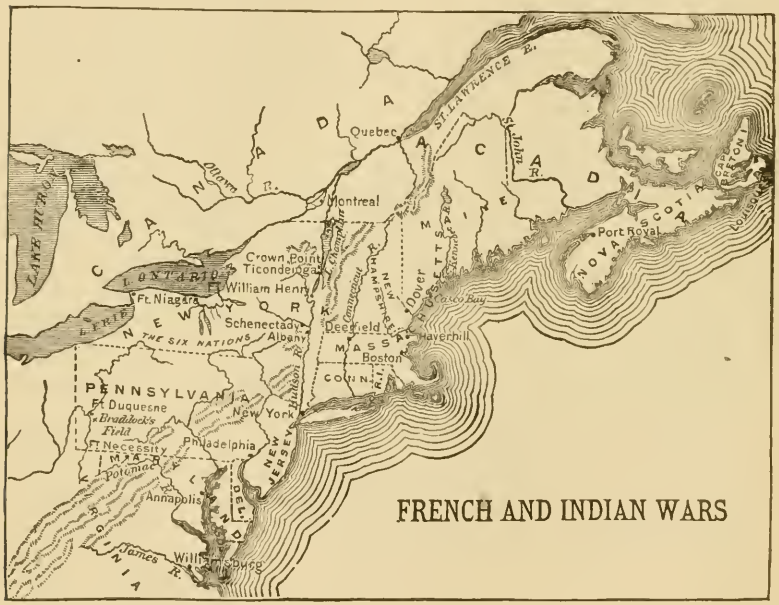
planation of the French, and to urge them to give up the territory in dispute. Washington met the French commandant at a fort on French Creek, a branch of the Alleghany. He found him polite, but it was very clear that France would not yield an acre of the soil she claimed. Even then, the French were preparing for an expedition against the English, and Washington was obliged to return without accomplishing anything to the advantage of Virginia.

It was winter, and, leaving his horse behind, Washington, with one companion, made his way through the wilderness, guided by his compass. An Indian fired at him from a short distance, but did not hit him. In attempting to cross the Alleghany on a rude raft, they were hemmed in by the floating ice, and Washington fell into the water, and came near being drowned. At last, he reached home, and reported to the governor.

Washington's Expedition.—The next spring (1754), Virginia sent out a regiment to occupy the fork of the Alleghany and Monongahela Rivers, the site of what is now the city of Pittsburgh. At the start, Washington was second in command, but Colonel Frye soon died, and Washington became the commanding officer. On the way it was learned that the French had already built a fort at the fork, but Washington pushed on. The French commander, who, with a company of men, had hidden among the rocks to surprise the English, was himself surprised and defeated.

Fort Duquesne (*du kane'*), as it was called, was found too strong to capture, and Washington erected another at a place called Great Meadows, which was named Fort Necessity. Early one summer morning this fort was attacked, and, after fighting all day, Washington was obliged to surrender; but the garrison was allowed to march out with flag and drum, leaving only the artillery behind. Though defeated, the little army had done well.

The Colonies Attempt to Form a Union.— The colonies now became convinced that it would be best to form a permanent union, in order to carry on the war. They also tried to secure the aid of the powerful Iroquois, or Six Nations, west of the Hudson; and the English government (1754) instructed the governors of the colonies to call a convention at Albany, to make a treaty with the Iroquois, and to form a union for defense against the French.



Benjamin Franklin drew up a plan for union, which was adopted by the delegates, but was afterwards rejected by the king, and by the people. Though not yet ready for union, the colonists, aided by their Indian allies, agreed well enough to carry on a vigorous war for nine long years.

Removal of the Acadians.—One of the first acts of the war was the removal of the Acadians (1755), who dwelt in what is now Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. The Acadians wished to be at peace, and gave up their arms, but would not take the oath of allegiance to England; so, soldiers were sent from New England to compel them to leave their country. In some of the villages, the men were called together by the ringing of the church bell, only to find themselves prisoners. They were marched to the ships at the point of the bayonet, and seven thousand men, women, and children were driven from their homes, and scattered through the English colonies.

Families were separated, so that wives and husbands, parents and children, sisters and brothers, never met again. Longfellow's poem, Evangeline, is based on this sad story.

"Where is the thatch-roofed village, the home of Acadian farmers,—
Men whose lives glided on like rivers that watered the woodlands,
Darkened by shadows of earth, but reflecting the image of heaven?
Waste are those pleasant farms, and the farmers forever departed!
Scattered like dust and leaves, when the mighty blasts of October
Seize them, and whirl them aloft, and sprinkle them far over the ocean.
Nothing but tradition remains of the beautiful village of Grand-Pre."

Braddock's Expedition.—Up to this time, the colonists had done most of the fighting, but England was now aroused, and she determined to put an army into the field. Accordingly, a force of British regulars was sent out under General Braddock, and Washington was made one of his staff. Braddock knew nothing of Indian warfare, and, as he was proud and conceited, would take advice from no one. As the army was marching through the forest in a long line, following a narrow and rough road, it is said that Washington pointed out the danger of a sudden attack from the savages lying in ambush, and urged Braddock to send some of the colonial troops forward as scouts.

But Braddock kept his troops in regular order, moving through the thick forest with drums beating and colors flying. When within a few miles of Fort Duquesne (July 8, 1755), as they were passing through a deep ravine, they were suddenly attacked by Indians, who fired from their hiding places behind trees and rocks. The regulars kept together, and were shot down in great numbers. The Virginia riflemen fought Indian fashion, and saved the army from total destruction.

Braddock showed great courage, but was soon mortally wounded. Washington had two horses shot under him, and four balls passed through his coat, but he received not the slightest injury. After losing seven hundred out of twelve hundred men, the regulars fled, leaving everything to the foe. With the few colonial troops that remained, Washington covered their retreat.

A Brighter Day.—The war continued, with two years of disaster for the English. William Pitt, the warm friend of the colonists, then became Prime Minister of England, and a brighter day dawned. Twenty-two thousand British regulars, and twenty-eight thousand colonial troops were put into the field against the French and their Indian allies. The English flag soon floated over Fort Duquesne, the gate of the West, and its name was changed to Fort Pitt, in honor of America's friend. Louisburg, the strongly fortified seaport of the French, was also captured.

The next campaign (1759) carried the war to the north and west, and Fort Niagara, Crown Point, and Ticonderoga, feebly held by the French, soon surrendered to the English.

Capture of Quebec.—Quebec was one of the strongest fortresses in the world, and General Wolfe was sent from England to command the forces to be sent against it. With eight thousand men, and a formidable fleet, he laid siege to the city, but the citadel, bristling with cannon, stood high above the reach of his guns, and he was

repulsed at every point, until, at last, he discovered a narrow path leading up the precipice.

Sailing up the river at night, in row-boats, while Captain Cook, of the fleet, feigned an attack at another point, Wolfe landed his men, and climbed by the foot-path to the plateau above the city, called the Heights of Abraham, where, when the morning dawned, the French commander, General Montcalm, was amazed to see an army in battle array. The French left their fortress, and came out to meet their enemy in the open field. The English gained the victory, but General Wolfe was wounded, and died.

In the very hour of victory, hearing the shout, "They fly!" Wolfe asked, "Who fly?" Being told that it was the French, he said, "Now, God be praised! I die happy." Montcalm also, was mortally wounded, and being told of his condition, said, "So much the better, I shall not live to see the surrender of Quebec." Thus died these two brave men. A monument on which is inscribed, "Wolfe and Montcalm," stands in the governor's garden in Quebec.

The French Lose Their Possessions.—The next year the Lilies were lowered on the flag-staff at Montreal, and the Cross of St. George was run up in its stead. At the treaty of Paris (1763), all the French possessions in America, except a small tract around New Orleans, were ceded to England. The French had lost their dominion in the New World forever.

Topics.—Tell about—

I. THE FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR.

1. Washington's mission.
2. Washington's expedition.
3. The attempt of the colonies to form a union.
4. The removal of the Acadians.
5. Braddock's expedition.
6. A brighter day.
7. Capture of Quebec.
8. Loss of the French possessions.

TOPICS FOR REVIEW.*

Historic Names.—Tell what you can of the persons whose names are given below. [The numbers refer to pages.]

Leif Ericson, 9.	Capt. John Smith, 37, 38	Edmond Andros, 59-73.
Columbus, 11-17.	Pocahontas, 38.	John Eliot, 62.
Ferd. and Isabella, 14,17	Lord Delaware, 39, 77.	King Philip, 63.
The Cabots, 18.	Berkeley, 42.	Berkeley—Carteret, 71.
Vasco da Gama, 19.	Bacon, 42.	William Penn, 74-75.
Amerigo Vespucci, 19.	Henry Hudson, 46.	Lord Baltimore, 78.
Ponce de Leon, 20.	Peter Minnet, 47.	James Oglethorpe, 82-84
Balboa, 20.	Peter Stuyvesant, 48.	Champlain, 86.
Magellan, 21.	Duke of York, 48.	La Salle, 86.
Verrazzani, 21.	John Carver, 53.	Hennepin, 86.
Cartier, 21.	Miles Standish, 53.	Washington, 92-95.
De Soto, 22.	Elder Brewster, 54.	Franklin, 94.
Pineda, 23.	Massasoit, 54.	Braddock, 95.
Drake, 23.	John Winthrop, 55.	General Wolf, 96.
Raleigh, 35.	R'g'r Williams, 56, 58-60	General Montcalm, 97.

Historic Places.—Locate the following, and tell what you can of the events with which they were connected.

San Salvador, 15.	Roanoke Island, 35.	St. Mary's, 78.
Havana, 17.	Jamestown, 37.	Charleston, 81.
Labrador, 18.	New Amsterdam, 47.	Savannah, 82.
Florida, 20.	Plymouth, 53.	Quebec, 86.
Isthmus of Darien, 20.	Salem, 55.	Dover, 61,88.
St. Lawrence, 21.	Boston, 55.	Schenectady, 88.
Tampa Bay, 22.	Hartford, 57.	Haverhill, 89.
Mississippi, 23.	New Haven, 58.	Deerfield, 90.
New Mexico, 31.	Providence, 60.	Louisburg, 91.
Port Royal, 34.	Elizabethtown, 71.	Fort Duquesne, 93.
St. Augustine, 35.	Philadelphia, 75.	Acadia, 95.

General Topics.—Tell what you can of the following:

CHAPTER I.—The Northmen. II.—The story of Columbus. III.—Other discoverers and explorers. IV.—The men who dwelt here before us. V.—Claims of different nations—Settlements. VI.—How Virginia was settled. VII.—How the people lived. VIII.—Settlement of New York. IX.—Life in New Amsterdam. X.—The New England Colonies: Massachusetts; Connecticut; Rhode Island; New Hampshire. XI.—Other events in New England. XII.—Early days in New England. XIII.—New Jersey and the Quakers. XIV.—William Penn and his colony. XV.—Delaware, or New Sweden—Maryland. XVI.—The Carolinas and Georgia. XVII.—The French in America. XVIII.—Three Indian wars. XIX.—The French and Indian War.

*See Hints to Teachers, page 0.

PART THIRD.

THE STORY OF THE REVOLUTION.

Chapter XX.

CAUSES OF THE REVOLUTION.

Feeling Towards the Mother Country.— More than a hundred and fifty years have passed since the settlement of Jamestown. The thirteen colonies, whose history we have studied, have a population of nearly three millions, and all are subject to Great Britain. Although there had been much trouble between the colonies and the mother country, they still loved her, and were ready to shout, "God save the King" (1764).

But a great change was to take place. The French and Indian War was over, and the people had time to think of their wrongs. The colonists began to feel that they were not ruled for their own good, but for the good of the English. They would have been satisfied to remain as they were had the government treated them justly, or even allowed them representation in parliament.

Let us notice some of the wrongs of which the colonists complained:

Navigation Acts, the object of which was to compel the colonists to trade with England, caused much trouble, and the officers whose duty it was to enforce them asked for "Writs of Assistance," or papers which would give them

L. of C.

the right to search any man's house or store for smuggled goods. The colonists held that, "Every man's house is his castle," and stoutly resisted the authorities.

Manufactures Prohibited.—The manufacture of steel and bar iron for their own use had been forbidden, and it was said that the colonists had no right to "make even a nail for a horseshoe." Iron works were declared "common nuisances;" and the Carolinians were not allowed to manufacture staves, turpentine, or tar.

Trade Crippled.—Woolen goods were not to be sent from one colony to another; and a heavy duty was placed on sugar, rum, and molasses brought from foreign lands. In these unjust ways Great Britain sought to force her colonies to buy their goods of her.

Lest the colonists should multiply their flocks of sheep and weave their own cloth, they might not use a ship, nor a boat, nor a carriage, nor even a packhorse, to carry wool, or any manufacture of which wool forms a part, across the line of one province to another. They could not land wool from the nearest islands, nor ferry it across a river, nor even ship it to England. A British sailor, finding himself in want of clothes in their harbors, might not buy there more than forty shillings worth of woolens.

Where was there a house in the colonies that did not possess the English Bible? And yet to print that Bible in British America would have been a piracy; and the Bible, though printed in German and in a native savage dialect, was never printed there in English till the land became free.

That the country, which was the home of the beaver, might not manufacture its own hats, no man in the plantations could be a hatter or a journeyman at that trade unless he had served an apprenticeship of seven years. No hatter might employ a negro or more than two apprentices. No American hat might be sent from one plantation to another, or be loaded upon any horse, cart, or carriage for conveyance.

America abounded in iron ores of the best quality, as well as in wood and coal; slitting-mills, steel furnaces, and plating forges, to work with a tilt-hammer, were prohibited in the colonies as "nuisances."—*Bancroft.*

Taxation without Representation.—The French and Indian war had cost the British Government a large sum of money; the colonists were required to help pay the debt, and the English claimed the right to tax them for this,

and other purposes, without their consent. The colonists had no representatives in Parliament, and they said, "Taxation without representation is tyranny."

The Stamp Act.—In order to raise a revenue from the colonists, a "Stamp Act" was passed (1765). It required that deeds, bills, notes, receipts, leases, newspapers, and pamphlets should be written or printed on stamped paper, to be sold by officers of the crown, the money to go to the government.

Opposition to the Stamp Act.—The first sign of opposition to the "Stamp Act" came from Virginia. Patrick Henry, a member of the Assembly then in session, offered resolutions denying the right of Parliament to tax the colonies. James Otis, an eloquent lawyer of Boston, led the opposition in New England. He said, "I am determined to sacrifice estate, ease, health, applause, and even life, to the sacred calls of my country." A congress of delegates from nine colonies met and drew up a "declaration of rights." Societies, called "Sons and Daughters of Liberty," were organized; merchants agreed not to buy British goods; men and women promised to wear home-made clothes, and said they would "eat nothing, drink nothing, wear nothing, that came from Great Britain." The stamp act was to go into force on the first of November, but not a stamp was bought or sold in any of the colonies, and, in some instances, the officers appointed to sell them were mobbed.

Repeal of the Stamp Act.—A year after its passage the act was repealed, and there was great rejoicing. In Boston, bells were rung, flags were run up, and houses were illuminated. Good feeling towards England was restored, and trade was resumed.

"On the evening of May 20, 1766, the citizens of Boston celebrated the repeal of the stamp act by hanging one hundred and eight lanterns on the old Liberty

tree on Essex street. One of the lanterns, which, according to its inscription, was hung on 'the west bough, opposite Frog Lane,' has been in the Hunneman family ever since, and has just been presented to the Bostonian Society by the widow and children of Joseph H Hunneman, of Roxbury."

The Tax on Tea and Other Articles.—But another act was soon passed by Parliament, laying a tax on tea, glass, paper, and a few other articles. This caused fresh excitement, and troops were sent over to New York and Boston to keep the people quiet and secure obedience to the law.

Boston Massacre.—The citizens of Boston did all they could to make the soldiers uncomfortable. Quarrels took place between them and the "Red Coats," and one day a crowd of men and boys insulted the city guard, and a fight ensued. Several citizens were wounded, and three were killed. This was called the "Boston Massacre."

FANEUIL HALL

A gust of smoke overspread the scene. It rose heavily, as if loath to reveal the dreadful spectacle beneath it. Eleven of the sons of New England lay stretched upon the street. Some, sorely wounded, were struggling to rise again. Others stirred not, nor groaned, for they were past all pain. Blood was streaming upon the snow; and that purple stain, in the midst of King's street, though it melted away in the next day's sun, was never forgotten or forgiven by the people.—*Hawthorne.*

The massacre aroused deep feeling in all the colonies. Faneuil Hall, "The Cradle of Liberty," was filled with indignant citizens, who, through their leader, Samuel Adams, compelled the governor, Thomas Hutchinson, to withdraw the troops. They were removed to a fort in the harbor, called the Castle.

Boston Tea Party.—So much trouble arose, that the tax was removed from everything except tea, and this was retained only to show that the government had the right to tax her colonies. One summer day, ships loaded with tea for Boston sailed into the bay. The people did not wish the tea to be landed; meetings were held, and there was hot debate. At length, Samuel Adams stood up in the dimly lighted church, and said, "This meeting can do nothing more to save the country." With a stern shout, the assembly broke up, and fifty men, disguised as Indians, hurried down to the wharf, each man with a hatchet in his hand. The ships were boarded, the chests of tea brought on deck, broken up, and flung into the bay.

The citizens looked on in silence. So still was the crowd that no sound was heard but the stroke of the hatchet, and the splash of the shattered tea-chests as they fell into the water. This was the work of what was called "The Boston Tea Party" (December 16, 1773). At New York and Philadelphia the ports were closed, and the ships were forbidden to enter; at Charleston, the tea was placed in damp cellars and left to spoil.

Boston Port Bill.—The British Government punished Boston by forbidding the landing or shipping of goods at its wharves. Many workingmen were thus thrown out of employment, and there was great distress, but sympathy came from all quarters. Marblehead and Salem offered the use of their wharves; a large flock of sheep was sent from Connecticut; wheat was forwarded from York State; rice and money from Georgia.

First Continental Congress.—Meetings were held in all parts of the country, and delegates were chosen to a General Congress, which met at Carpenter's Hall, Philadelphia (September 5, 1774). Every colony but Georgia was represented. Among the fifty-three delegates who were in attendance were such men as George Washington, Patrick Henry, Samuel Adams, and John Adams. This Congress did

not ask for independence. A paper was drawn up, telling the king their wrongs, and imploring him to remove them. They also appealed to the people of England, whom they still regarded as brothers. But the king made no reply, and Parliament would not allow the paper to be read in its hearing. The king made up his mind to force the colonists to submit, and a fleet and an army of ten thousand men were sent over.

Getting Ready for War.—Everywhere in the colonies, companies of soldiers, called "Minute Men," were now formed and drilled; the sound of fife and drum was heard on every hand; balls were cast, cartridges made, and ammunition stored in places of safety. The British general became alarmed, fortified Boston Neck, and conveyed the powder in the magazine at Charleston and Cambridge, to Boston for safety.

A rumor went abroad over the country that the British ships were firing on Boston, and, though it proved to be false, in two days thirty thousand minute men were on their way to the city. Only a spark was needed to kindle the flames of war, and the terrible roar of battle was soon heard.

Topics.—Tell what you can of—

I. CAUSES OF THE REVOLUTION.

1. Feeling towards the mother country. 2. Navigation laws. 3. Manufactures prohibited. 4. Trade crippled. 5. Taxation, without representation. 6. The stamp act. 7. Opposition to the stamp act. 8. Repeal of the stamp act. 9. The tax on tea and other articles. 10. The Boston massacre. 11. The Boston "Tea Party." 12. The Boston port bill.

II. THE FIRST CONTINENTAL CONGRESS.

III. GETTING READY FOR WAR.

Chapter XXI.

THE BEGINNING OF THE WAR.

"They left the plowshare in the mould,
Their flocks and herds without a fold,
The sickle in the unshorn grain,
The corn half-garnered on the plain;
And mustered, in their simple dress,
For wrongs to seek a stern redress.
To right those wrongs, come weal, come woe,
To perish, or o'ercome their foe."

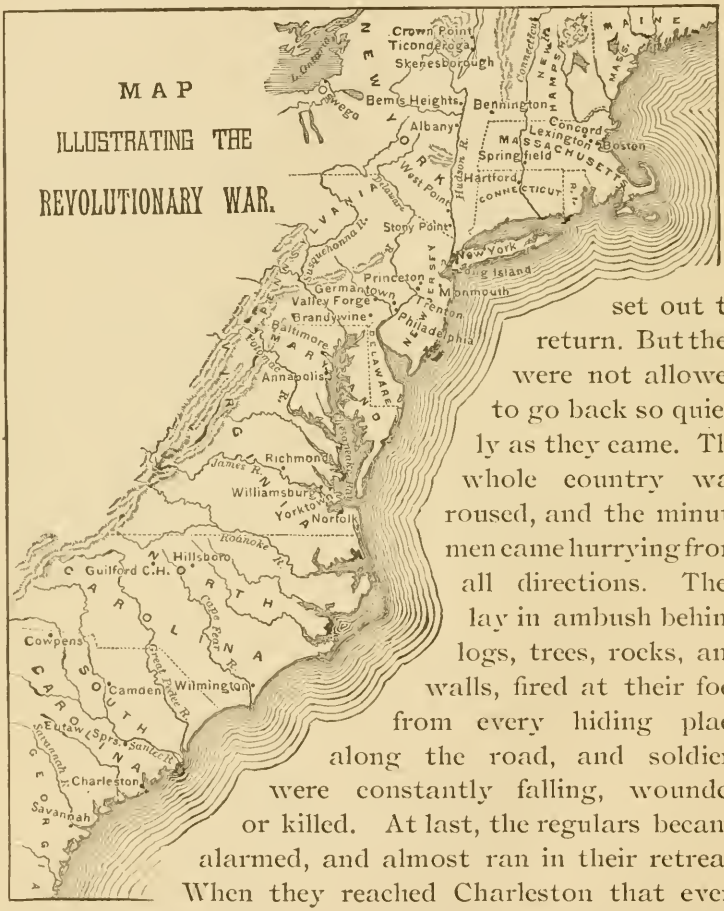
March of British Troops.—On the evening of April 18, 1775, General Gage, who commanded the British troops in Boston, sent out eight hundred regulars to destroy some military stores, which the colonists had collected at Concord, twenty miles away. Starting near midnight, they hoped their coming would be unexpected; but as they moved quickly along the road in the bright moonlight, they heard the clang of bells in the village steeples and knew that the alarm had been given.

Paul Revere's Ride.—The patriots kept watch at Charleston, and when they saw the signal light in the steeple of the old North Church, in Boston, they knew the British troops were moving, and messengers were sent to give the alarm. Paul Revere rowed over from Boston to Charleston in a boat, and was soon galloping on horseback through the towns on the road to Lexington and Concord, warning the people at every house of the coming of the soldiers.

"A hurry of hoofs in the village street,
A shape in the moonlight, a bulk in the dark,
And beneath from the pebbles in passing, a spark,
Struck out by a steed flying fearless and fleet."

Lexington and Concord.—When the British reached Lexington (4 o'clock, April 19), they fired on a company of minute men, a little band of farmers gathered on the green, killing eight and wounding ten. This was the first

blood shed in the Revolutionary War. At Concord the stores which the patriots had not removed to the woods for safety were destroyed by the British, after which they



set out to return. But they were not allowed to go back so quietly as they came. The whole country was roused, and the minute men came hurrying from all directions. They lay in ambush behind logs, trees, rocks, and walls, fired at their foes from every hiding place along the road, and soldiers were constantly falling, wounded or killed. At last, the regulars became alarmed, and almost ran in their retreat. When they reached Charleston that evening, the British had lost, in killed and wounded, nearly three hundred men. The American loss was less than one hundred.

Rally of the Colonists.—The news of the battle of Lexington, as it was called, spread like wild-fire into all the colonies, and when the Massachusetts Committee of Safety sent out an appeal for troops, farmers left their plows, blacksmiths their forges, and carpenters their shops, for the scene of danger. In a short time, from fifteen to twenty thousand men, were gathered around Boston.

Ticonderoga.—Nearly a month later (May 10, 1775), Ethan Allen, at the head of a band of "Green Mountain Boys," made a sudden attack on Fort Ticonderoga, near the head of Lake Champlain, capturing it without the loss of a man. By this victory the Americans gained cannon, powder, and other much-needed stores.

Troops About Boston.—The troops gathered about Boston were undisciplined; they had but few cannon, and little powder, and their guns were mostly common fowling-pieces, without bayonets. There was no commander-in-chief, but the troops from Massachusetts were placed under General Ward; those from New Hampshire, under General Stark; those from Rhode Island, under General Green; Generals Putnam and Spencer commanded those from Connecticut.

Battle of Bunker Hill.—On the night of June 16, with a force of twelve thousand men, Colonel Prescott was sent to throw up earthworks on Bunker Hill, but it was decided to fortify Breed's Hill, which was nearer Boston. Midnight came before a sod was turned, but when General Gage looked out the next morning he saw a strong intrenchment upon the heights, and swarms of men still at work.

The British ships at once opened fire upon the works, and, later in the day, three thousand regulars moved up the hill against them. Twice the regulars were driven back, with great loss. A third attack was then made, but, as the Americans were nearly out of powder, they could fire

but one volley. They then fought with their guns used as clubs, and with stones, until compelled to give way at the point of the bayonet.

The British captured the fort at the cost of a thousand men, but the Americans, who had lost less than half that number, had learned that raw troops could face the best men England could send against them, and they regarded the battle of Bunker Hill as almost a victory, and were greatly encouraged.

WASHINGTON ELM.

[On a granite tablet at the foot of the elm is inscribed, "Under this tree Washington first took command of the American army, July 3, 1775."]

Loss of General Warren.— Among the patriots who fell at Bunker Hill, was Joseph Warren, a physician of rare skill, who had worked earnestly and effectively for the interests of the colonists, and was chairman of the Committee of Safety. Just before the battle began, he went to the redoubt on Breed's Hill with a musket in his hand, to fight as a volunteer in the ranks. When a leading patriot said, "I beg you not to expose your person, Dr. Warren, for your life is too valuable to us," the Doctor replied, "I know that I may fall, but where's the man who does not think it glorious and delightful to die for his country?"

Washington Made Commander-in-Chief.— On the day when Ticonderoga was captured, the second Continental

Congress assembled at Philadelphia. It decided to raise an army of twenty thousand men, and, by unanimous vote, George Washington was chosen commander-in-chief of all the patriot forces. Washington joined the army at Boston, and took command under the great elm in Cambridge (July 3, 1775).

Condition of the Army.—The army was but a mixed multitude of people, mostly without uniforms, and armed with guns they had brought from home, hardly any two of which were alike. Each had his own powder-horn and bullets, and such provisions as he brought with him. A few of the troops had tents, but more lived in huts of boards, stones, or turf, built with their own hands. There were but seven rounds of powder to a man. By degrees the army was drilled and supplied with many things which were sorely needed, but powder continued scarce.

The British Driven from Boston.—The British were besieged in Boston, until Washington succeeded in planting a strong force on Dorchester Heights, commanding the harbor and city. This compelled General Howe to embark his army (March 17, 1776), and he quitted Boston forever. Over a thousand royalists sailed with him to Halifax, most of them never to return.

Large Forces Sent to America.—When the news of Bunker Hill reached England, the government resolved to subdue the colonies at any cost. All trade with them was strictly forbidden, and any one was authorized to seize their ships and cargoes on the sea. A force of sixteen thousand Hessians from Germany was hired to come over and aid the British, who concluded to place an army of fifty thousand men in America. To meet this large number of trained soldiers the colonists had only about twelve thousand men, but they would not now give up.

Topics.—Tell about—

1. The march of British troops.
2. Paul Revere's ride.
3. Lexington and Concord.
4. Rally of the colonists.
5. Ticonderoga.
6. Troops about Boston.
7. Battle of Bunker Hill.
8. Washington made commander-in-chief.
9. Condition of the army.
10. The British driven from Boston.
11. Large forces sent to America.

Chapter XXII.

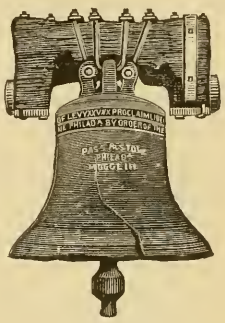
THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.

Up to this time the colonists considered themselves subjects of Great Britain. They had fought for their rights, but had not sought independence. Wise men now saw that the time had come to free themselves from British rule, and, though there was much opposition, on the 4th of July, 1776, after a long debate, the Declaration of Independence was adopted by the Continental Congress, at Philadelphia.

"**American Independence** was not an act of sudden passion, nor the work of one man, or one assembly. It had been discussed in every part of the country by farmers and merchants, by mechanics and planters, by the fishermen and backwoodsmen; in town-meetings, and from the pulpit; at social gatherings, and around camp fires; in newspapers, and in pamphlets; in country conventions, and conferences of committees; in colonial congresses and assemblies. The decision was put off, only to ascertain the voice of the people," and that voice had been heard.

On the 12th of June, of the same summer, Virginia had adopted a declaration of rights, which covered nearly the same ground as the Declaration of Independence: and other colonies had framed bills of rights, in reference to their relations to Great Britain. Every colony had demanded independence before that memorable 4th of July, and Congress did but express the will of the majority of the people.

What the Declaration Says.—The Declaration of Independence says that all men are born equal, and have the same right to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. It declared the colonies free and independent states, and to support the Declaration the signers said, "We pledge to each other, our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor."



LIBERTY BELL.

The Liberty Bell.—In the steeple of the old State House, where Congress met, was a bell on which was inscribed, "Proclaim liberty throughout all the land, unto all the inhabitants thereof." On the morning of July Fourth, the bell-ringer went to his post above, placing his son below, to tell him when the Declaration was adopted. The bell-ringer waited, hour after hour, saying to himself, as time wore on, "They will never do it! They will never do it!" All at once, he heard his boy clapping his hands and shouting, "Ring! Ring!!" Grasping the iron tongue of the bell, the old man swung it to and fro, the bells of the city and the great crowds in the streets re-echoing the glad sounds.

"How they shouted! What rejoicing!
How the old bell shook the air,
Till the clang of freedom ruffled
The calm, gliding Delaware!
How the bonfires, and the torches,
Illumed the night's repose,
And from the flames, like Phœnix,
Fair Liberty arose!

"That old bell now is silent,
And hushed its iron tongue,
But the spirit it awakened
Still lives,—forever young.
And while we greet the sunlight,
On the Fourth of each July,
We'll ne'er forget the bell-man,
Who, 'twixt the earth and sky,
Rung out OUR INDEPENDENCE,
Which, please God, SHALL NEVER DIE!" —*Anon.*

How the Declaration Was Received.—Over all the colonies the Declaration was hailed with joy. The different divisions of the army listened to its reading with loud huz-

zas; in New York the leaden statue of King George was torn from its pedestal by the people, and cast into bullets, to shoot at the king's soldiers; at Boston the Declaration was read in Faneuil Hall, while the roar of cannon shook the city; Charleston and Savannah had their illuminations.

The British Take New York.—Washington thought that the British would be likely to occupy New York, and he moved his little army to its defense. Thirty thousand British troops encamped on Staten Island, a few miles from the city, and a powerful fleet sailed into the bay. A battle was fought on Long Island, in which the Americans were defeated, after a hard struggle (August 27, 1776).

WASHINGTON'S SWORD AND STAFF.

Washington's Retreat.—The Americans were obliged to leave New York, and they retreated, step by step, through New Jersey, followed closely by the enemy, under Lord Cornwallis, who reached the east bank of the Delaware just as Washington landed on the west.

The retreat greatly encouraged the British, but it cast a deep gloom over all the colonies. Washington had but a few thousand men at his command, and they were poorly armed, fed, and clothed, and without sufficient blankets or tents. A British officer said, "In a regiment there is scarce one whole pair of breeches." As they marched towards Philadelphia, the people looked with pity upon their ragged defenders, and with fear upon the brilliant host of pursuers.

Battle of Trenton.—Winter came on, and the British army was scattered among the villages of New Jersey, fear-

ing nothing from the despised Americans. A few miles from Philadelphia, in the village of Trenton, was a force of fifteen hundred Hessians. On Christmas evening (1776), Washington crossed the Delaware with twenty-four hundred men to make an attack upon these troops. The night was dark, and so cold that two of his soldiers were frozen to death. The route of the army could be traced by blood left upon the snow by bare feet. At dawn, the Americans burst upon the astonished Hessians, who had been drinking on the day before, and were not ready to fight. Their commander was slain, and the soldiers laid down their arms.

Washington Seeks Aid.— The term for which many of Washington's men had enlisted was nearly at an end, and they were weary, and longed for home. Washington had no money to pay them or to offer as a bounty to induce them to remain, and his little army was likely to melt away. He had already pledged his own private fortune, and in his sore distress he applied to Robert Morris, of Philadelphia, for aid.

Robert Morris was born in England in 1734. He was a member of the Continental Congress and a signer of the Declaration. He made free use of his private credit to support the government, and in 1781 supplied almost everything to carry on the campaign against Cornwallis. Morris was appointed Superintendent of Finance, and Secretary of the Treasury, under the Confederation; assisted in framing the Constitution, and served as the first United States Senator from Pennsylvania. He, with his partner, sent to Canton, China, the first American ship ever seen in that port. In his old age, he lost his fortune, and was in prison for debt for some time. Died in Philadelphia in 1806.

On New Year's morning (1777), Robert Morris went from house to house in Philadelphia, rousing people from their beds to borrow money of them; and early in the day he sent Washington fifty thousand dollars, with the message: "Whatever I can do shall be done for the good of the service; if further occasional supplies of money are necessary, you may depend upon my exertions, either in a public or private capacity."—*Bancroft.*

Battle of Princeton.—Two days later (January 3d) another victory was gained over the British, at Princeton.

These triumphs restored confidence in Washington, and revived the drooping spirits of the colonists. After the battle of Princeton Washington went into winter quarters near Morristown, where, protected by rivers, hills, and woods, his little army was not likely to be attacked by the enemy.

The Starry Flag.—Up to the summer of this year a variety of flags had been used by the colonists, but it was thought best for the United States to have one of its own, and Congress voted (June 14, 1777) "that the flag of the thirteen United States be thirteen stripes, alternate red and white, and the union be thirteen white stars in the blue field." This is the flag that now waves over every United States ship, camp, or building, except that for every State added to the Union a new star has been placed on the flag; while the thirteen stripes still remind us of the old thirteen colonies that won their independence.—*Higginson.*

OUR COUNTRY'S FLAG.

Flag of the free heart's hope and home—
By angel hands to valor given!
Thy stars have lit the welkin dome,
And all thy hues were born in heaven.
Forever float that standard sheet!
Where breathes the foe but falls before us,
With freedom's soil beneath our feet,
And freedom's banner streaming o'er us!—*J. Rodman Drake.*

Invasion of Burgoyne.—In June, a large force, consisting of British, Canadians, and Germans, under General Burgoyne, came from Canada by way of Lake Champlain, intending to take Albany, and then form a junction with the British army at New York. In this way the enemy

hoped to separate and weaken the colonies. The Indians were invited to join Burgoyne. Ticonderoga was taken, and a strong party was sent over to Bennington, Vermont, to destroy military stores collected there. This party was defeated by a body of militia led by General Stark, who had seen service at Bunker Hill. As Stark saw the enemy forming for battle, he shouted to his soldiers, "There are the red-coats; we must beat them to-day, or Molly Stark will be a widow!"

Burgoyne Captured.—Burgoyne encamped with his whole army at Saratoga, while General Gates, who was in command of the Americans, fortified Bemis Heights, a little to the south, where two battles were fought, the Americans bravely holding their ground. After this the British retreated, but they were soon hemmed in by the forces of General Gates, and (October 16, 1777) Burgoyne's army of nearly six thousand men was forced to surrender. Among the stores captured were forty-two cannon, between four thousand and five thousand muskets, and a large supply of ammunition. This was a great victory for the Americans, and England keenly felt the shame of the defeat.

Topics.—Speak of—

I. THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.
   1. What the Declaration says.
   2. The liberty bell.
   3. How the Declaration was received.

II. EVENTS FOLLOWING THE DECLARATION.
   1. The capture of New York by the British.
   2. Washington's retreat.
   3. Battle of Trenton.
   4. Washington seeking aid.
   5. Battle of Princeton.
   6. The starry flag.

III. INVASION OF BURGOYNE.
   1. Capture of Burgoyne.

SURRENDER OF GENERAL BURGOYNE.

Chapter XXIII.

FROM BRANDYWINE TO YORKTOWN.

Brandywine and Germantown.—When the spring (1777) came, Howe, wishing to capture Philadelphia, took his troops from New York by sea, to the head of Chesapeake Bay, where they were landed. Washington awaited their coming on the banks of a small river called the Brandywine. Here he was attacked by a superior force, and, though the Americans fought with great courage, they were compelled to retreat, and the British soon entered Philadelphia. This was known as the battle of Brandywine (September 11, 1777). Not long after, Washington attacked the British at Germantown, but was repulsed.

BRITISH GRENADIER.

The Army at Valley Forge.—Winter was coming on, and the well-fed, well-clad British army went into comfortable quarters at Philadelphia. Washington retired to Valley Forge, among the hills, some twenty miles away. Here rude log huts and ragged tents were put up by the soldiers, many of whom were without blankets, or even straw for beds, and were obliged to sit up all night by their fires to keep warm. For a time, more than a thousand men were without shoes, and they might have been tracked through the snow by the blood from their frosted feet. Even the sick often lay on the bare ground. Food was

scarce, the men were seldom paid, and the money they did receive had little value.

Distinguished Helpers.—The struggle of the colonists had roused the sympathy of many people in Europe, and a number of brave men had come over to help fight the battle of liberty. Among them were Marquis de La Fayette, Count Pulaski, Baron De Kalb, Baron Steuben, and Kosciusko. These officers, who were used to the luxuries of courts, were at Valley Forge with Washington, and the buildings where they lived were, as La Fayette wrote, to a friend in Paris, "no gayer than a dungeon."

La Fayette.—The Marquis de La Fayette was of an ancient French family. His father was killed in battle, and on his mother's death he became heir to large estates. Feeling a deep interest in the struggles of the colonies, he concluded to join their cause; fitted out a vessel at his own expense, in which he crossed the sea; served as a major-general without pay, furnishing clothing and camp equipage to the needy patriots out of his own private means; was wounded in the battle at Brandywine, and fought bravely on other fields; conducted the campaign which ended in a victory at Yorktown. He afterwards held important positions in France, and used his influence to procure the abolition of slavery in French colonies, freeing and educating his own slaves in Cayenne, South America. Died at Paris, May 20, 1834, in his 77th year.

Aid from France.—From the first, the French people had been in sympathy with the Americans, but the king would do nothing to aid; and three commissioners, one of whom was Benjamin Franklin, were sent to France, and on the 6th of February (1778) the French Government acknowledged the independence of the colonies, and agreed to help them in their fight. The news of this alliance was received in America with great joy. When the British Government heard that France was to aid America, it was alarmed, and sent commissioners to offer peace, if the colonists would lay down their arms;

LA FAYETTE.

Baron Steuben belonged to a noble family, which had been distinguished in the annals of Prussia. He was thoroughly educated; had been on the staff of Frederick the Great, and had held other positions of honor in his native land. Leaving an ample fortune, he came to America, landing at Portsmouth, New Hampshire, late in November, 1777. John Hancock, of Boston, furnished Steuben's party with sleighs, drivers, and saddle horses, for the journey of more than four hundred miles to York, Pennsylvania, where Congress was in session. He was received by Congress with distinguished honors, after which he lost no time in joining Washington at Valley Forge.

Steuben saw that the army needed nothing so much as training, and he took his musket in hand and showed what was to be done. From morning till night he worked, and the camp was turned into a huge military training school. The men were taught how to advance, to retreat, to change front, to use the bayonet—how, in short, to perform all the rapid and accurate movements for which the Prussian army was famous. After three months (May, 1778), Steuben was appointed inspector-general of the army, in which position he saved the country immense sums of money, by preventing the loss of arms and waste of every description. In consideration of his services, Congress gave him an annuity of two thousand five hundred dollars. The State of New York gave him sixteen thousand acres of wild land in Oneida County, on which he built a log house, in which he lived a quiet life until November 28th, 1794, when he died, at the age of sixty-four years.

but Congress would now accept nothing short of independence.

Retreat of the British.—General Howe was called to England, and Sir Henry Clinton was sent to take his place (May, 1778). Fearing that a French fleet might blockade the Delaware and shut his army up in Philadelphia, Clinton retreated overland to New York. He was closely followed by Washington, who overtook him at Monmouth, where there was a sharp engagement. The battle continued till nightfall, and Washington waited anxiously, for morning, hoping for a complete victory. But the enemy stole away in the darkness, and escaped defeat.

Treachery of Lee.—In the battle of Monmouth, the plans of Washington were foiled by the treachery of General Charles Lee who was in command of the American advance, six thousand strong. Lee was to gain the flank of the retreating enemy and make a vigorous attack, while Washington was to come up in the rear with the other division of the army to complete the victory. Lee's force was ample for the task assigned it, and there was good reason for the hope that the flower of the British army might be captured or de-

stroyed. Lee held an excellent position for attack, but the struggle had scarcely begun when he ordered a retreat, murmuring something about the impossibility of standing against British regulars.

Learning of this order, Washington hastened to the scene. "What is the meaning of all this?" he shouted, addressing Lee. "His tone was so fierce and his look so threatening that the traitor shook in his stirrups, and could at first make no answer." For his conduct at Monmouth and his very disrespectful letters to Washington, Lee was suspended from command in the army. Nearly eighty years had passed before a document was discovered which shows that he was a selfish adventurer, who desired to be first in command, and intrigued with the enemies of our country.

Molly Pitcher.—It was in this fight that an American artilleryman, named Pitcher, was killed while loading his cannon. His wife, Molly, who was bringing him some water, immediately took his place at the gun, and faithfully performed his duties during the continuance of the battle. After that she went by the name of Captain Molly. Washington made her a sergeant, and Congress granted her half-pay for life.

Operations in the South.—Finding that it was not easy to subdue the Northern States, General Clinton sent a force of two thousand men to the South, where, as there were more slaves and fewer whites, he hoped the country might be easily conquered. Just at the close of the year (December 29, 1778), Savannah was captured by this expedition. The defeated patriots escaped by way of the river, and found refuge in Charleston, South Carolina. This was the only real conquest made by the British during that year.

Capture of Stony Point.—The following year (1779), brought no great victories. Mad Anthony Wayne recaptured Stony Point on the Hudson, which had been strongly fortified by General Clinton, the patriots securing ordnance and stores valued at one hundred and fifty thousand dollars. The Americans, aided by Count de Estaing, in command of the French, besieged Savannah, but they were unable to carry the works, and had to retire. Here the brave Count Pulaski, struck by a grape-shot, was borne dying from the field.

A Naval Victory.—Paul Jones, in command of the Bon Homme Richard, an American privateer, was cruising off the

coast of Scotland when he fell in with the British frigate Serapis, carrying forty-four guns. For an hour and a half the battle was kept up at short range, when Jones ran his ship alongside and lashed her to the Serapis. The fight went on, hand-to-hand, until the Serapis struck her colors. Jones then placed his men on the Serapis and the Bon Homme Richard soon sank. Though the captain of the Serapis lost his ship, he fought so bravely that he was given the title of knight.

Events in the South.—During the following year (1780) little was done in the North; but there was much activity in the South, where the patriots suffered many reverses. After a long siege by land and sea, the British captured Charleston (May 12, 1780), the principal city of the South. There was then no regular army to oppose them, and they soon swept over the state. General Clinton, who was in command, sailed for New York, leaving Lord Cornwallis to hold the conquered territory.

But the British were not allowed peaceable possession. Bands of patriots, led by Marion, Pickens, and Sumter, threaded the forests, by paths known only to themselves, making night attacks on the foe, and striking where least expected. Marion gained the name of "Swamp Fox," and the British complained because he would not meet them in the open field, "to fight like a gentleman."

SONG OF MARION'S MEN.

Our band is few, but true and tried, our leader frank and bold;
The British soldier trembles when Marion's name is told.
Our fortress is the good green wood, our tent the cypress tree;
We know the forest round us as seamen know the sea. —*Bryant.*

After the fall of Charleston, General Gates was placed in command in the South, but his forces were badly beaten by Cornwallis at the battle of Camden. Here Baron de Kalb, the brave officer who suffered with Washington at

Valley Forge, remained on the field trying to rally the flying men, until he received eleven wounds and fell in the agony of death.

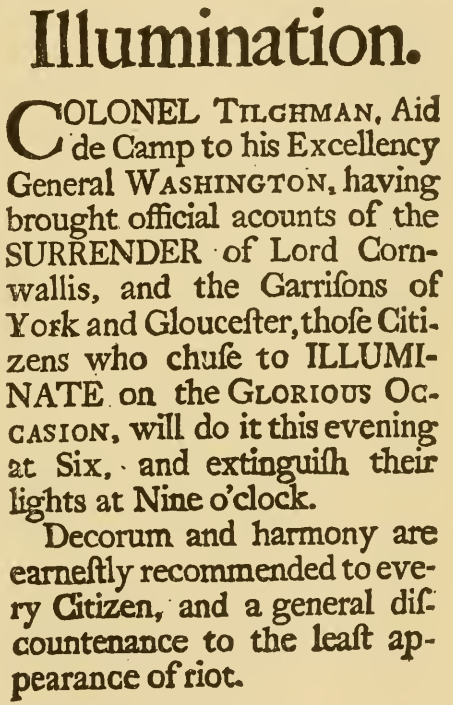
The Treason of Arnold.—In the midst of general gloom it became known that a leading patriot, Benedict Arnold, had turned traitor. It was found that Arnold, who had taken part in the war from the beginning, and had shown great bravery in leading troops through the forests to Quebec, and in commanding a force on Lake Champlain, had for a long time been in secret correspondence with Sir Henry Clinton, the British commander-in-chief. Arnold was stationed at West Point, a stronghold and very important post on the Hudson. He proposed to surrender this fort to the British, and came near succeeding.

Capture of André.—One day three young men stopped a man on the road, and he, thinking them to be tories, told them that he was a British officer. This man was Major André, aid-de-camp to Sir Henry Clinton. In his boots were found papers from General Arnold, giving the terms of surrender. André offered his captors a gold watch and large sums of money for his release, but they refused to accept the bribe, and gave him up to the military authorities. He was tried by court-martial and hanged as a spy. Arnold escaped, joined the British, and fought against his own country. Though he was made a brigadier-general, and received a large reward in money, he was despised and shunned even in England.

Greene's Campaign in the South.—At the close of the year (1780) General Greene was sent South to take charge of what was left of the American army in that section. He reorganized the scattered forces, and, early in the year (1781), routed a force of British under General Tarleton, gaining a decisive victory. Later in the season Cornwallis

defeated Greene at Guilford Court House; but Greene continued to carry on the war with great skill, and the British met so many losses that Cornwallis withdrew to Virginia, and in a few months Georgia and the Carolinas were rid of the enemy, who then held but three cities—Wilmington, Charleston, and Savannah.

Siege of Yorktown. — Reaching Virginia, Cornwallis ravaged the country along the James River until early in August, when he entrenched himself at Yorktown. La Fayette, who was in command of the American forces in the state, was not able to meet Cornwallis in the open field, but watched all his movements with sleepless eyes. He saw that if a French fleet could be anchored in the mouth of York River, cutting off retreat by water, a great victory might be gained, and sent messages to Washington telling him of the situation.



Illumination.

COLONEL TILGHMAN, Aid de Camp to his Excellency General WASHINGTON, having brought official acounts of the SURRENDER of Lord Cornwallis, and the Garrifons of York and Glouceſter, thoſe Citizens who chuſe to ILLUMINATE on the GLORIOUS OCCASION, will do it this evening at Six, and extinguiſh their lights at Nine o'clock.

Decorum and harmony are earneſtly recommended to every Citizen, and a general diſcountenance to the leaſt appearance of riot.

October 24, 1781.

REDUCED FAC-SIMILE OF THE PROCLAMATION RESPECTING ILLUMINATION ON THE SURRENDER OF CORNWALLIS.

Count Rochambeau (*ro sham bo*) with a French army of 6,000 men had landed at Newport, Rhode Island (July, 1780), and joined the American army, on the Hudson, a

short distance above New York. With this timely aid, Washington was able to keep Clinton in a state of constant alarm. When Cornwallis' position and the approach of the French fleet became known to Washington, he left a small force to deceive the British, and with Rochambeau marched rapidly southward to join La Fayette before Yorktown.

The allied armies formed a half-circle in front of Yorktown, while the French fleet, with powerful cannon, lay in the rear. The siege began late in September, and was continued until the 18th of October, when the terms of surrender were signed. On the following day nearly eight thousand British troops gave up their arms and became prisoners of war.

YORKTOWN.

From Yorktown's ruins, ranked and still,
Two lines stretch far o'er vale and hill:
Who curbs his steed at head of one?
Hark! the low murmur: Washington!
Who bends his keen, approving glance
Where down the gorgeous line of France
Shine knightly star and plume of snow?
Thou, too, art victor, Rochambeau!

* * * * * *

Now all is hushed: the gleaming lines
Stand moveless as the neighboring pines;
While through them, sullen, grim, and slow,
The conquered hosts of England go:
O'Hara's brow belies his dress,
Gay Tarleton's troop ride bannerless:
Shout, from thy fired and wasted homes,
Thy scourge, Virginia, captive comes!

Nor thou alone: with one glad voice
Let all thy sister states rejoice;
Let Freedom, in whatever clime
She waits with sleepless eye her time,
Shouting from cave and mountain wood,
Make glad her desert solitude,
While they who hunt her quail with fear:
The New World's chain lies broken here.

— *Whittier.*

End of the War.—Great joy followed this victory. Congress set apart a day for thanksgiving, and Washington liberated persons under arrest, that all might share in the general triumph. The war had lasted nearly seven years, and all felt that the end was reached, and that they had a right to be happy.

Treaty of Peace.—Two years later (September 3, 1783), English and American commissioners met at Paris, and a treaty was made between England and her old colonies, by which she acknowledged their independence.

Washington Returns to Mt. Vernon.—When the war closed, Washington returned to his home on the banks of the Potomac, where he hoped to spend the rest of his days as a humble citizen of the country he had saved. He would take no pay for his services. To see his country free and independent was his great reward.

Topics.—Tell about—

1. Brandywine and Germantown.
2. The army at Valley Forge.
3. Distinguished helpers.
4. La Fayette.
5. Aid from France.
6. Retreat of the British from Philadelphia.
7. Molly Pitcher.
8. Operations in the South.
9. Capture of Stony Point.
10. A naval victory.
11. Events in the South—Marion.
12. The treason of Arnold.
13. Capture of André.
14. Greene's campaign in the South.
15. Siege of Yorktown.
16. End of the war.
17. The treaty of peace.
18. Washington's return to Mt. Vernon.

TOPICS FOR REVIEW.

Historic Names.—Tell what you can of the persons whose names are given below:

Patrick Henry, 101.
James Otis, 101.
Samuel Adams, 102-'3.
John Adams, 103.
Washington, 108-125.
General Gage, 105.
Paul Revere, 105.
Ethan Allen, 107.
General Ward, 107.
General Stark, 107.
General Green, 107.
General Putnam, 107.
Colonel Prescott, 107.
Joseph Warren, 108.
King George III., 112.
Lord Cornwallis, 112,
Robert Morris, 113.
General Burgoyne, 114.
Gen. Gates, 116-121.
Gen. Howe, 109-116.
La Fayette, 118.
Count Pulaski, 118.
Baron De Kalb, 118.
Baron Steuben, 119.
Kosciusko, 118.
Benjamin Franklin, 118.
Sir H. Clinton, 119-124.
General Lee, 119.
Anthony Wayne, 120.
Paul Jones, 120.
Marion, 121.
General Gates, 121.
Benedict Arnold, 122.
Major André, 122.
General Greene, 122.
Rochambeau, 123.

Historic Places.—Locate the places named, and tell what you can of the events with which they were connected:

Boston, 101-109.
New York, 112.
Philadelphia, 117.
Charleston, 105.
Lexington, 105.
Concord, 105.
Ticonderoga, 107.
Trenton, 112.
Princeton, 113.
Bennington, 116.
Bemis Heights, 116.
Saratoga, 116.
Brandywine, 117.
Germantown, 117.
Valley Forge, 117.
Monmouth, 119.
Stony Point, 120.
Savannah, 120.
West Point, 122.
Guilford, C. H., 123.
Yorktown, 123.
Mount Vernon, 125.

General Topics.—Tell what you can of the following:

CHAPTER XX.—Causes of the Revolution. XXI.—The beginning of the war. XXII.—The Declaration of Independence. XXIII.—From Brandywine to Yorktown.

PART FOURTH.

THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

Chapter XXIV.

ARTICLES OF CONFEDERATION—THE CONSTITUTION.

Condition of the Country.—The Revolutionary army was not disbanded until the autumn of 1783. Independence had been gained, but there were many troubles to contend with. The war left the colonists very poor—much of their property had been destroyed; their foreign trade had been ruined; agriculture and manufactures had been neglected; no silver or gold coin was in circulation, and the paper money was of little or no value.

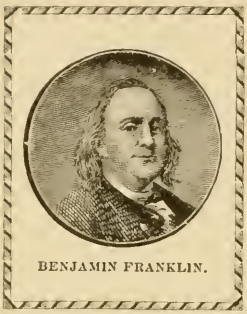
The United Colonies
SIX DOLLARS
No. 45541
Six DOLLARS.
THIS Bill entitles the Bearer to receive SIX SPANISH MILLED DOLLARS, or the Value thereof in GOLD or SILVER, according to a Resolution of CONGRESS. Philadelphia Nov: 2. 1776.
W Gibson
I Franklin
PERSEVERANDO
SIX DOLLARS
Continental Currency
SIX DOLLARS

CONTINENTAL CURRENCY.

Continental Paper Money.—When the war began in 1775, the issue of paper money by the several colonies, and by the Continental Congress, became necessary. The plates were engraved by Paul Revere, of Boston. The paper used for the bills was so thick and coarse that the British called it "the pasteboard currency of the rebels." Cart-loads of counterfeits were sent out over the colonies and put in circulation by the British. At the end of eighteen months from

the first issue, $20,000,000 had been struck off by Congress alone, and little depreciation had been noticed.

After this, the value of the currency declined so rapidly that, in 1781, a paper dollar was worth less than one cent and a half. Congress resolved that the bills "ought to pass current in all payments, trade, and dealings, and be deemed equal in value to the same sum in Spanish dollars;" but this made no difference, as, before the war closed, the money was worthless. It would not buy food or clothing, or pay the soldiers, and the whole country was greatly distressed. With good money, the war might have been closed much sooner—perhaps, in four years.



BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

Power of Congress.—Besides all this, Congress had incurred a large public debt in carrying on the war; it had no means with which it could pay its soldiers, many of whom were penniless and much dissatisfied; and, still worse, it had no power to levy a tax to pay any part of the debt it had contracted. It could only ask the states to do it, and they might neglect, or even refuse.

Opposition to Taxation.—In several of the states there was great opposition to taxation. It was said, "Neither taxes nor debts should be paid at such a time;" and in Massachusetts the opposition became so strong that a rebellion broke out, under the leadership of one Daniel Shays. Two thousand men in arms defied the authority of the state, and force had to be used to restore order.

Articles of Confederation.— In July, 1775, Benjamin Franklin presented to the Continental Congress a plan of government to exist until the war closed; but no action was taken until a year later, when a committee was appointed, and reported "Articles of Confederation," which were discussed for a time, and then laid aside until 1777. Meanwhile, several states had adopted constitutions for their own government, but Congress was regarded as the head in matters pertaining to war and finances.

Benjamin Franklin, the fifteenth of a family of seventeen children, was born in Boston, January 17, 1706; died in Philadelphia, April 17, 1790. He was apprenticed to his brother James, a printer, and by reading, and careful practice in writing, all by himself, gained much knowledge of public affairs, and was able to compose readily and well. Franklin left Boston at the age of seventeen to seek his fortune elsewhere. He finally settled in Philadelphia, where he established himself as a printer, and started the Pennsylvania Gazette.

For many years he published under the name of Richard Saunders, an almanac which became very widely known as "Poor Richard's Almanac." As it contained many wise and useful maxims, Franklin was soon regarded as a wise and prudent public man. He was the chief founder of the Philadelphia Library (1731), the first subscription library on record; the founder of the University of Pennsylvania; a delegate to the Colonial Congress; a signer of the Declaration of Independence, which he helped to frame; a member of many learned societies; a leading member of the convention which drafted the National Constitution; an ambassador to France; the inventor of the "Franklin stove, or fireplace," and of the lightning rod. His last public act was the signing of a memorial to Congress on the subject of slavery, by the Abolition Society of Pennsylvania, of which he was the founder and president. Beginning life empty-handed, Franklin became one of the world's wise men, useful to his country—to all mankind. It was said that, "He wrested the thunderbolt from the sky, and the sceptre from tyrants."

On the 15th of November, 1777, after a long debate, a plan of government known as "Articles of Confederation" was adopted, by which the thirteen states became the "United States of America." The Articles of Confederation were submitted to the several states for their approval, but the work went on slowly, and the league was not completed until March, 1781, when the delegates from Maryland signed the articles. The Articles of Confederation remained in force until the acceptance by the states of our present Constitution (1788).

Weakness of the Government.—Under the "Articles of Confederation," Congress could make war and decide how many soldiers were required, it could borrow money on the credit of the Union, could make known what supplies were needed by the army, and could make treaties with foreign powers; but any state might fail or refuse to raise its quota of soldiers, to levy a tax to pay the public debt, to

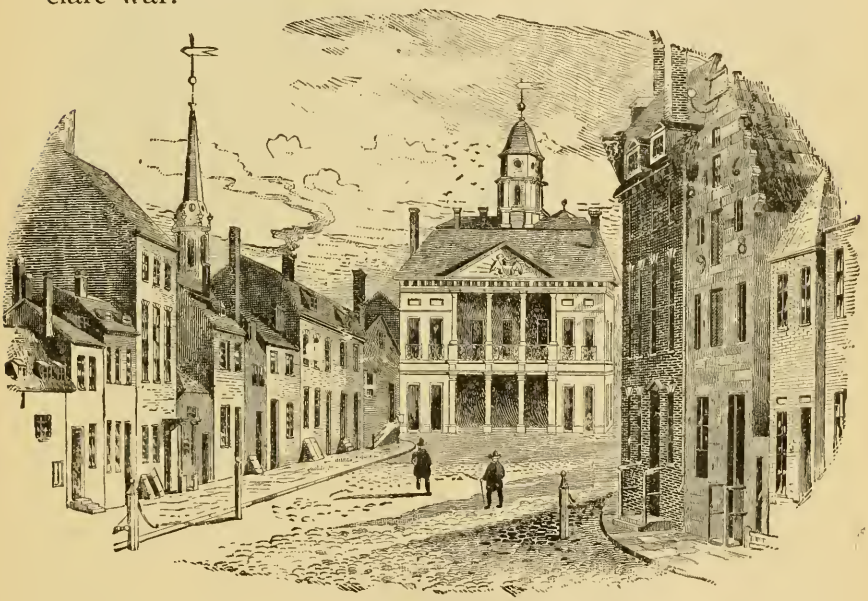
provide supplies for forces in the field, to observe treaties, and Congress had no power to compel obedience.

Washington wrote, "One state will comply with a requisition of Congress; another neglects to do it; a third executes it by halves; * * so that we are always working up-hill. We are one nation to-day and thirteen to-morrow." He, and other statesmen, saw that this would never do, and a convention was called to meet at the State House in Philadelphia, to frame a constitution, and make a stronger government without injury to the people of the several states.

Early Life of Washington.— George Washington was born near the banks of the Potomac, in Westmoreland County, Virginia, February 22, 1732. He was the eldest son of his father's second wife, Mary Ball, and as his father died when George was a small child, the education and guidance of the future leader devolved upon his mother. So wise was her training that Washington always remembered her affectionate care with deep gratitude. He received a common English education; and was naturally thoughtful, truthful, and strictly honest. At fourteen he had a strong desire to become a sailor, but listened to the kind advice of his mother, and remained at home. When seventeen years of age, he was known as one of the most careful and accurate land surveyors in Virginia, and a year later he was appointed public surveyor. In pursuit of his profession he learned much of the border country; and also of the habits of the Indians in peace and in war. These lessons were of great value to him in after life. By the will of his half-brother, Lawrence, Washington became heir to the fine Mount Vernon estate.

Framing the Constitution.— The convention consisted of fifty-five delegates, and every state, except Rhode Island, was represented. Washington acted as president. After a session of four months, the present Constitution of our country was adopted (September 17, 1787). The states were now to accept or reject it. Eleven of them ratified it before the close of 1788; so that it went in operation in 1789. North Carolina and Rhode Island accepted it later, and the thirteen states, which had been feebly held together by the Articles of Confederation, were at last firmly united. They had become *a nation*.

Powers of the Government.—The Constitution leaves each state free to make its own laws, and gives the general government power to manage those things which concern the whole country. It can levy taxes, coin money, regulate commerce, establish postoffices, make treaties with other governments, provide an army and navy, and declare war.



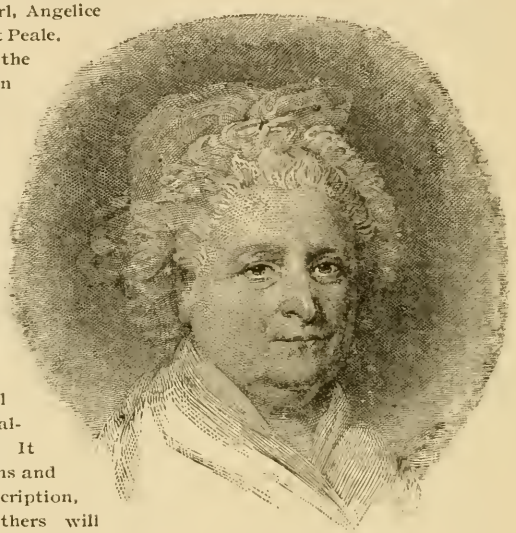
FEDERAL HALL.

The First President.—George Washington received all the electoral votes for President of the new Republic, and John Adams was chosen Vice-President. New York was made the seat of government.

Journey to New York.—As Washington journeyed to that city from his home at Mount Vernon, the people everywhere, "old and young, women and children, thronged the highways to welcome and bless him." Delegations came out

from the principal cities to meet and escort him; streets were decorated with silken flags, and his name was wreathed with garlands of flowers and evergreens.

On each bank of the Schuylkill River, where he crossed, was a triumphal arch approached through an avenue bordered by evergreens. Up amid the laurel of the arches was a little girl, Angelice Peale, daughter of Rembrant Peale, the renowned artist of the last century. As Washington passed beneath the arch, she dropped a wreath of laurels upon his head. "Long live George Washington!" was the shout that went up from twenty thousand people assembled to greet him.—*Chautauquan.*



MARTHA WASHINGTON.

At Trenton, the ladies had erected a triumphal arch on a bridge over which Washington had retreated before the army of Cornwallis on that wintry night. It was entwined with evergreens and laurel, and bore the inscription, "The defender of the mothers will be the protector of the daughters." As Washington passed under the arch a number of young girls, dressed in white and crowned with garlands, strewed flowers before him, and sang this ode:

"Welcome, mighty chief, once more,
Welcome to this grateful shore:
Now no mercenary foe
Aims again the fatal blow—
Aims at thee the fatal blow.

"Virgins fair, and matrons grave,
Those thy conquering arm did save,
Build to thee triumphal bowers:
Strew, ye fair, his way with flowers!—
Strew your hero's way with flowers!"

Inauguration.—Washington took the oath of office on the balcony of Federal Hall, New York. The oath was administered by the Chancellor of the state of New York.

in full view of a vast multitude in the streets, who sent up the shout, "Long live George Washington, President of the United States." At this moment a flag was unfurled on the cupola of the hall, the roar of artillery was heard, and the church bells rang out a joyful peal. Thus was our first president inaugurated (April 30, 1789).

Martha Washington, wife of President Washington, left Mount Vernon to join her husband in New York, on the 19th of May, 1789. She traveled in her chaise, and was tidily clothed in goods of American manufacture. With her were two grandchildren, George Washington Parke, and Eleanor Parke Custis, children of her son by a former husband. At Baltimore, Philadelphia, and New York, she was received with honors worthy of a queen.

Topics.—Tell about—

1. Condition of the country.
2. Continental money.
3. Power of Congress.
4. Opposition to taxation.
5. Weakness of the Confederation.
6. Washington's opinion.
7. Framing the Constitution.
8. Powers of the government.

I. THE FIRST PRESIDENT.

1. Journey to New York.
2. Inauguration.
3. Martha Washington.

INAUGURATION OF WASHINGTON.

Chapter XXV.

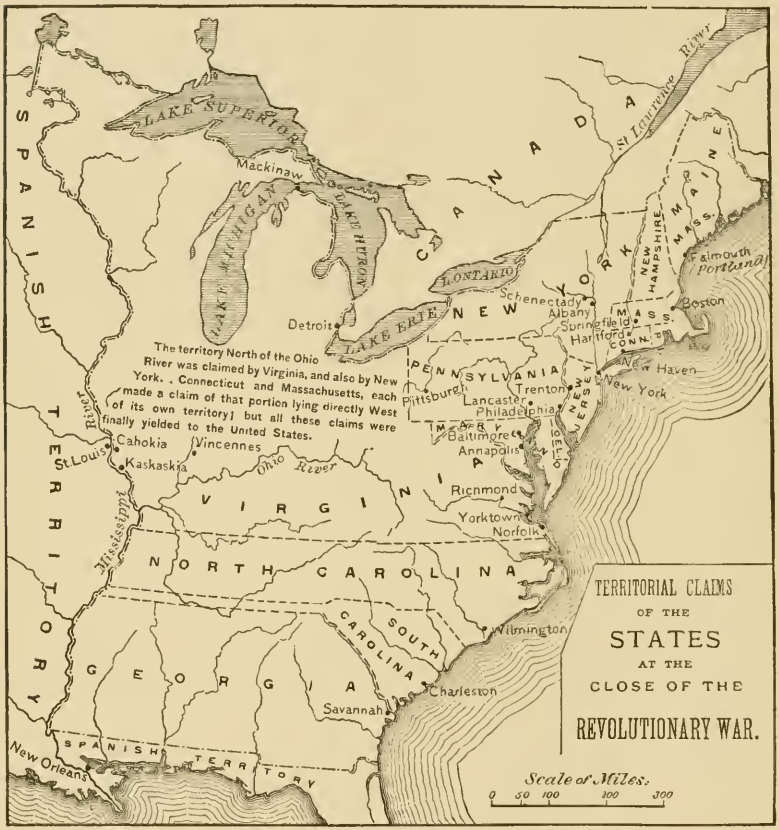
THE NEW REPUBLIC AND ITS PEOPLE.

Population and Territory.—When Washington became President, the thirteen states numbered less than four million inhabitants. The population was thinly scattered between the Atlantic Ocean and the Alleghany Mountains, beyond which only a few hardy settlers had built their cabins. By the treaty of peace, the United States had secured all the territory east of the Mississippi, save a tract along the Gulf of Mexico, but the vast region to the west of that river was held by Spain.

The Cities.—The principal cities were on the sea-coast, or near the mouths of navigable rivers. The largest had hardly more than forty thousand inhabitants. The streets were poorly paved, dirty, and mostly without light at night, and everywhere water was carried from the town pump or well. In traveling away from the coast, one would have found the towns smaller and smaller, the dwellings ruder and ruder, and farther and farther apart, until the unbroken forest was reached.

How People Traveled.—Steamboats and railroads were unknown, and the common roads were few, and usually very poor. The great rivers were not bridged, and rude scows were used in crossing them. Most of the people lived on farms or plantations, and seldom traveled far away from home. Horseback riding was common, and journeys of hundreds of miles were sometimes made in the saddle. Workingmen traveled on foot, carrying a change of clothing tied in a bundle, which was hung on the end of a stick thrown over the shoulder. (*See page 164.*)

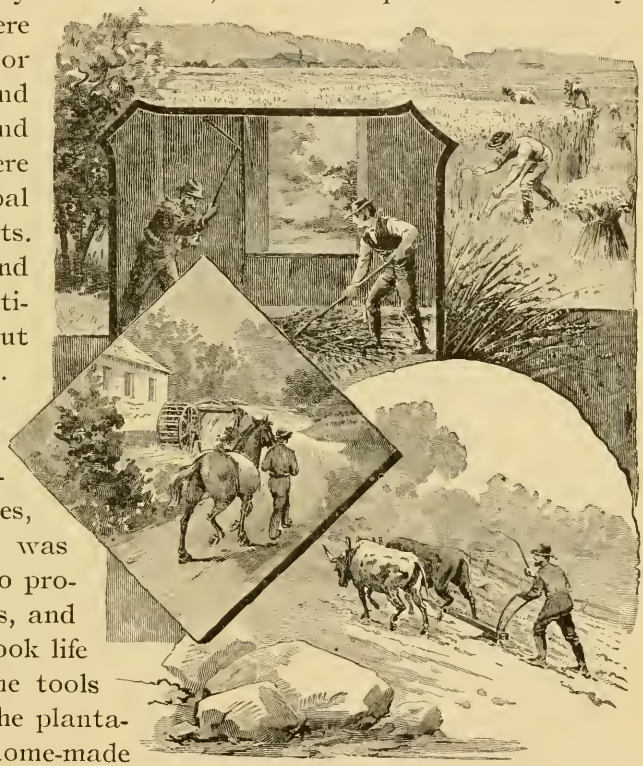
Merchants, and other persons of means, went from town to town in sailing packets, or in their own coaches. Stages, drawn by four horses, ran between Boston and New York,



New York and Philadelphia, and other large towns. It took about a week to make the run by stage from New York to Boston, a trip now made in a few hours.

Farm Life.—Nearly all of the farmer's tools were very rude. He stirred the ground with a wooden plough hav-

ing an iron share, reaped his grain with a curved blade, called a sickle, threshed it with a flail, and often carried his wheat or corn to mill in a sack thrown across the back of a horse. It was hard to sell his surplus grain, and little money was received, and little spent for his family. There were few books or papers, and hunting and fishing were the principal amusements. Labor and rest constituted about all of life.



FARM LIFE — THRESHING — REAPING.

In the Middle and Southern States, less labor was required to produce crops, and planters took life easier. The tools used on the plantation were home-made and clumsy. The plantations grew about all that was used for food, and the slaves made most things needed on the estate. The large tobacco and rice growers found a ready market for their products. They imported many things, and lived in fine style.

Mails and Newspapers.—Most people wrote very few letters, and the mails were so irregular and slow that it took a long time to hear from distant friends. There were weekly newspapers, but as the telegraph and "fast mail" were unknown, much of the news printed was rather old.

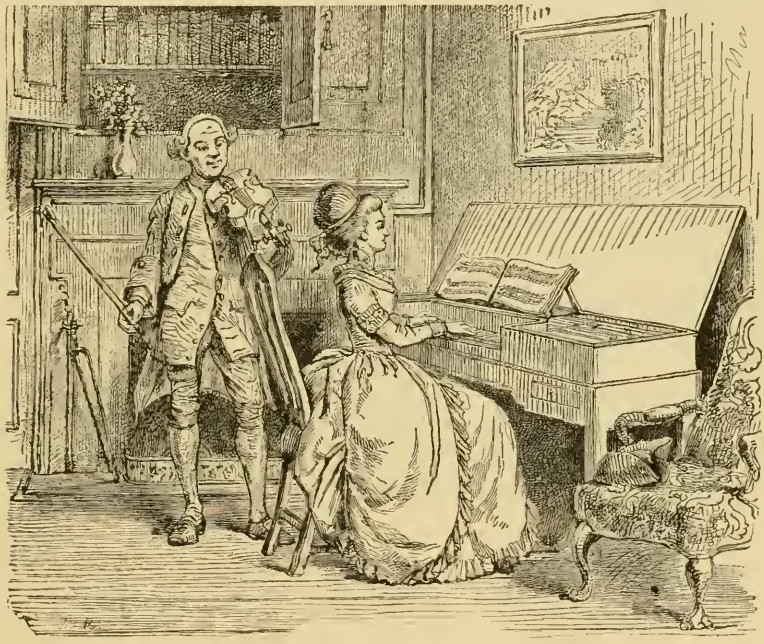
Schools and School-Masters.—There were schools in all the cities, villages, and hamlets of New England, but there were no blackboards, wall-maps, globes, or patent desks such as we have to-day. The boys learned to read, to write, and to cipher; and the girls had reading, writing, needle-work, and fancy-work. The pens were made of quills, and every master carried a penknife. "Setting copies" and "mending pens" was a part of his daily work; and no one thought of teaching without a rod or a ruler with which to punish unruly boys. Schools were not so common in the South, where there were many slaves.

Lights and Fuel.—Houses, churches, and halls were lighted with tallow, wax candles, or oil; and grease, burned in a shallow vessel with a wick, supplied light in many homes. The use of stone coal was scarcely known, and the only fuel was wood, burned in a fire-place instead of a stove.

How the People Dressed.—Wool and flax were spun and woven at home, and nearly everybody wore homespun clothes. Workingmen usually wore breeches of leather, or leather aprons. Every fall the feet of the children were measured by the shoemaker, who went from house to house to make shoes for the family. Clothes were cut and made by a seamstress, who sometimes boarded in the family while at work. Many of the farmer's tools were home-made, and very different from those we see to-day.

The wealthier classes wore very elegant costumes. Judges had their robes of silk; clergymen, when in the pul-

pit, wore powdered wigs with gowns; and ladies appeared in rich silks and brocades imported from Europe, with hair built high above the head, and dressed with powder and pomatum. Gentlemen clothed themselves in suits of many colors. A wig, a white stock, white satin embroidered vest, black satin breeches, white silk stockings, broadcloth



THE MUSIC LESSON.

or velvet coat, low shoes with large silver buckles, and a highly ornamented snuff-box, were necessary articles in those days, if a gentleman would go abroad in fashionable attire.

Slavery.—Slaves were still held in all the states except Massachusetts; but they were most numerous in the South, where tobacco and rice were raised with ease and profit.

Nearly everybody thought that slavery would die out in a short time, and the country become in fact, as in name, "The land of the free and the home of the brave."

NEGRO VILLAGE IN GEORGIA.

The number of slaves in the states at the time of the first census (1790) was as follows:

NORTH.		SOUTH.	
New Hampshire,	158	Delaware,	8,887
Vermont,	17	Maryland,	103,036
Rhode Island,	952	Virginia,	293,427
Connecticut,	2,759	North Carolina,	100,572
Massachusetts,*	None	South Carolina,	107,094
New York,	21,324	Georgia,	29,264
New Jersey,	11,423	Kentucky,	11,830
Pennsylvania,	3,737	Tennessee,	3,417
Total,	40,370	Total,	657,527

*Abolished in 1780.

Topics.—Tell about—

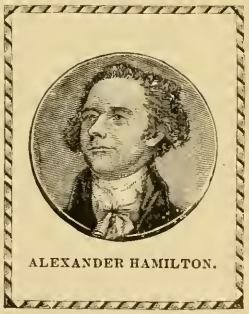
I. THE NEW REPUBLIC AND ITS PEOPLE.

1. Population and territory.
2. The cities.
3. How people traveled.
4. Mails and newspapers.
5. Farm life.
6. Schools and school-masters.
7. Lights and fuel.
8. How the people dressed.
9. Dress of the wealthy, judges, etc.
10. Slavery.

CHAPTER XXVI.

WASHINGTON'S ADMINISTRATION—1789-1797.

Provisions of the Constitution.—The Constitution of the United States provides for a congress to make the laws, a president to see that they are obeyed, and a supreme court to explain them when there is doubt of their meaning.



ALEXANDER HAMILTON.

The First Cabinet.—Congress authorized Washington to choose three secretaries to advise and assist him. They, with the Attorney-General, formed what is called the "President's Cabinet." Thomas Jefferson was chosen Secretary of State, to attend to all business with other nations; Alexander Hamilton, Secretary of the Treasury, to look after the financial affairs of the government; General Henry Knox, Secretary of War, to attend to matters connected with the army. Edmund Randolph was appointed Attorney General, and John Jay, Chief Justice of the Supreme Court.

Alexander Hamilton was born in Nevis, one of the West Indies, January 11, 1757. His father was from Scotland; his mother, a French Huguenot. He was sent to Elizabeth, N. J., to attend school, and afterwards entered Kings College. When but seventeen years of age he took an active interest in the political affairs of the colonies, and his speeches, pamphlets, and newspaper articles won great applause. He entered the army, and became aid-de-camp to Washington, his secretary and confidant. After the surrender of Cornwallis, he studied law, was elected to Congress, and became a leader in his profession. He was a member of the convention that framed the Constitution, and was the principal author of a series of remarkable papers in favor of it. As the first Secretary of the Treasury, he was the founder of the financial system of the Republic, including the United States Bank. After assisting to put the machinery of the government in motion, he resigned and resumed the practice of law.

In 1804, though opposed to dueling, Hamilton felt compelled to accept a challenge from Aaron Burr, and was killed.

"The impression upon the public mind by this fatal duel did not easily subside. The absurdity of the sacrifice of a life like Hamilton's to the honor of a profligate like Burr was too gross, and a strong impulse was thus given to that growing sentiment of civilized common sense which has nearly extirpated the practice of dueling throughout the United States."—*Hildreth.*

Questions to be Settled.—All the wisdom of Congress, of the President, and his Cabinet was needed in settling the questions that came up. There was a large war debt, and no money in the treasury; the Indians were at war with the settlers on the Western frontier; there was a bitter feeling towards England, because she did not fully observe the late treaty; Spain refused to open the Mississippi to American vessels; and there was trouble with France, and with the pirates of the Barbary States, who preyed upon the commerce of the country.

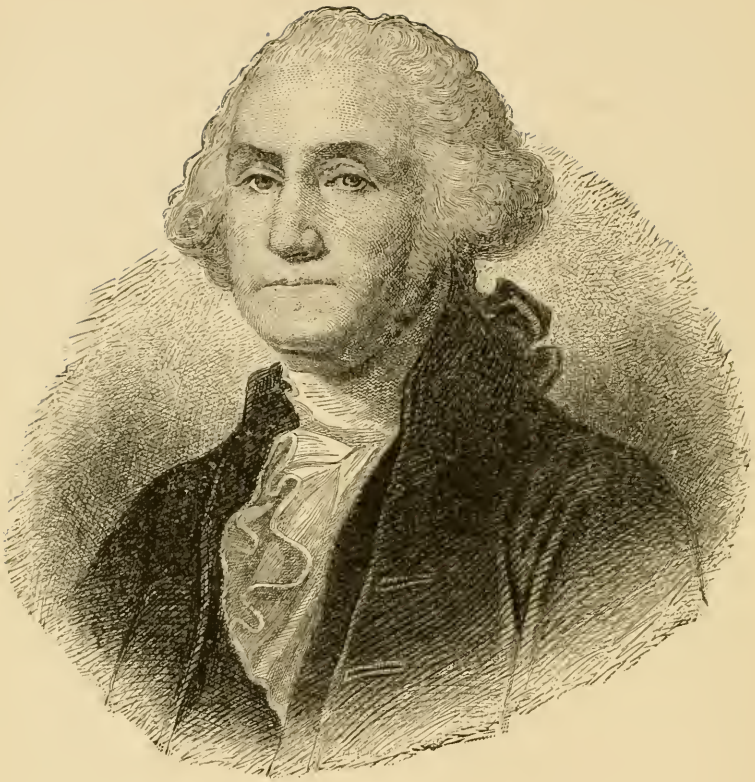
Work of the Administration.—Early provision was made for the payment of every dollar of the public debt; the Indians were subdued by troops sent against them; a treaty was made with England, and for a time there was a better feeling between the two nations; Spain consented to the free navigation of the Mississippi by American vessels; a steady hand was carried with the French, and with the pirates of the Barbary States.

Seat of Government.—Besides settling these important matters, the seat of government was removed to Philadelphia (1790), to remain until a site could be chosen on the Potomac; a United States bank was established; and also a mint for coining money.

New States.—Three states were admitted to the Union: Vermont (1791), Kentucky (1792), and Tennessee (1796), making a nation of sixteen states, with sixteen stars on its flag.

Political Parties.—In those days there were two parties—the Federalist and Republican. The Federalists had favored the adoption of the Constitution, and wished to see a strong general government. They believed in forms and ceremonies, and feared the people would not have respect for public officers whose style of living was plain and simple. On the other hand, the Republicans, or Democrats, as they were afterwards called, feared that the national government would become so strong as to destroy the rights of the states. They hated the aristocracy of England, and thought that everybody ought to live in a plain, inexpensive way. Jefferson and Samuel Adams were leaders of the Republicans, while Washington, Hamilton, and John Adams were Federalists. The Republicans thought Washington's way of living too showy and expensive, and made bitter complaints.

Washington's Coach and Levees.—Washington rode to Congress in a cream-colored coach ornamented with flowers and figures of cupids supporting festoons. On ordinary occasions the coach was drawn by four horses; on great occasions by six, and on Sundays by two. The driver and postillions wore liveries of white and scarlet. Levees, or receptions, were held regularly, at which Washington appeared in black velvet, with white or pearl colored waistcoat, yellow gloves, silver knee-buckles and shoe-buckles. His hair was powdered, and gathered in a silk bag behind. He carried a cocked hat in his hand, and wore a long sword with a scabbard of polished white leather. He never shook hands with his guests, but bowed to each when introduced. Mrs. Washington also held evening levees, at which everyone was expected to appear in full dress.



G. Washington

Party Spirit was so bitter in the early days of the Republic that even Washington was not spared by the political papers. He was accused of "plotting against the public liberties," of "multiplying evils upon the United States," of "corrupting the principles of republicanism," and of "wearing the mask of patriotism to conceal the foulest designs." Other public men were made the subjects of even more severe abuse. Both parties were guilty of the offense.

The Cotton Gin.—During Washington's term of office (1793), a machine was invented which had a wonderful influence on the labor of the South and on the history of the whole country. The cotton plant, so useful for its fibre, was easily grown almost everywhere in the South, but it required so much labor to separate the seed from the fibre, that the crop could not be raised with profit.

Eli Whitney, a native of Massachusetts, visiting in Georgia, invented a cotton gin, the teeth of which pulled the fibre through wires, leaving the seeds behind. This "gin" performed the work of hundreds of hands, and cotton raising became so profitable that vast tracts of land were devoted to it, and in a few years millions of pounds were annually shipped to England. This brought wealth to the country, increased the value of slaves, who worked the plantations, and caused the people of the cotton-raising states to cling to slave labor more strongly than before.

Washington's Death.—Having held the office of President for eight years, or two terms, Washington declined to be a candidate for a third term, and retired to Mount Vernon to spend the rest of his days on his estate. Death came to him on the 14th of December, 1799. He was ill but a short time, and passed away without a struggle, saying to those about him, a short time before he expired, "I feel that I am going. I thank you for your attention, but I pray you will take no more trouble about me; let me go off quietly. I cannot last long." Washington was greatly mourned by his countrymen, and by good people in all lands.

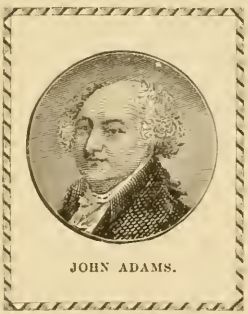
Topics.—Tell about—

1. Provisions of the Constitution.
2. The first cabinet.
3. Questions to be settled.
4. Alexander Hamilton.
5. Work of the administration.
6. Seat of government.
7. New states.
8. Political parties.
9. Washington's coach, levees, dress.
10. The cotton gin.
11. Washington's death.

Chapter XXVII.

JOHN ADAMS' ADMINISTRATION—1797-1801.

John Adams, of Massachusetts, was the next President. He had but a small majority over Jefferson, and the latter was made Vice-President. This was under the rule in those days, that the candidate who had the second highest number of votes for President should be made Vice-President. Adams was inaugurated at Philadelphia, but before his administration closed the seat of government was removed (1800) to a site at Washington, selected by General Washington himself.



JOHN ADAMS.

Trouble with France.—Our minister to France was sent home, laws unfriendly to American commerce were passed, and the officers of French war vessels were encouraged to prey upon our commerce. Trade with France was suspended, an army was ordered to be raised, the navy to be strengthened, and Washington was called to the command.

Fortunately, Napoleon came into power in France, and with him the government had no difficulty in making a settlement.

Alien and Sedition Laws.—The friends of France living in the United States said so many hard things against the government that Congress passed "Alien and Sedition Laws." The alien law gave the President authority to send foreigners out of the country whenever he believed their presence dangerous to the peace; and the sedition law made it a crime for anyone "to write, print, utter, or publish any false or scandalous" statement against the government or President. Several prominent men were tried under these acts, which the people regarded as very harsh, and the administration of Adams became so unpopular that he was not re-elected. There were several candidates, but as no one was chosen by the electoral vote, the House of Representatives, which had the right to decide in such cases, chose Jefferson.

The Twelfth Amendment.—The difficulties growing out of this election were so great that it was thought best to change the manner of choosing the President and Vice-President, and the twelfth amendment to the Constitution was adopted (1804). The electors were thereafter required to vote separately for each officer, and there could be no tie vote such as the one between Jefferson and Burr, where both candidates were of the same party. This is the mode at the present time.

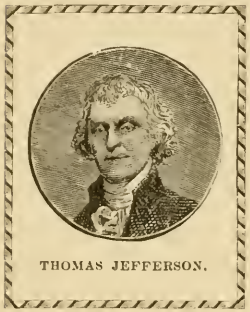
Topics.—Tell about—

1. John Adams' election.
2. Trouble with France.
3. Alien and sedition laws.
4. The twelfth amendment.

Chapter XXVIII.

JEFFERSON'S ADMINISTRATION—1801-1809.

Jefferson's Habits.—As we have learned, Jefferson was a Republican, or as afterwards called, a Democrat. Though of aristocratic birth, he favored simplicity in dress, in manner of living, and in government. When inaugurated, he wore plain clothes, rode to the Capitol on horseback, alone, hitched his horse to a post, went in, and read his address. He abolished levees and birthday parties, introduced by Washington; but threw open his doors, and welcomed everybody on New Year's and the Fourth of July. He made the expenses of government as small as possible, and paid thirty-three millions of the public debt.



THOMAS JEFFERSON.

War with Tripoli.—The ports of the Barbary States, along the Mediterranean, were infested by pirates who plundered the vessels of Christian nations, and held their crews as slaves to be ransomed. The United States had paid tribute to the rulers of the Barbary States, as the easiest way to protect American commerce; but the ruler of Tripoli became dissatisfied with the payments made to him, and declared war (1801). Jefferson resolved to pay no more tribute to pirates, and sent a squadron to teach them a lesson. In 1805, Tripoli was glad to make peace. Ten years later, Algiers was humbled, after which there was no more trouble with pirate powers.

Thomas Jefferson was born at Shadwell, Virginia, April 2, 1743. He was educated at the College of William and Mary; studied law, and was admitted to the bar when twenty-four years of age. He became a member of the Virginia House of Burgesses in 1769, and continued in public life until his retirement from the presidency of the United States. When thirty-two years of age he became a member of the Continental Congress, in which body he wrote many state papers. As a member of a committee to draft the Declaration of Independence he drew up that important paper. During the war for independence Jefferson was very active in his own state, serving as governor from 1779 to 1781. He was the author of our present system of reckoning by dollars and cents, instead of the old way, by pounds, shillings, and pence. In 1785 he was sent as minister to the French Court, where he remained until called to a seat in Washington's Cabinet.

Jefferson's house was the resort of the learned men of both hemispheres; he was not a fluent speaker, but a ready writer and very entertaining in conversation. He regarded slavery as a moral and political evil, and did much to alleviate its hardships. He adopted the motto, "Rebellion to tyrants is obedience to God." He died July 4, 1826, and was buried near his house at Monticello. His monument bears an inscription written by his own hand, and found among his papers, "Here lies buried Thomas Jefferson, author of the Declaration of Independence, of the statute of Virginia for Religious Freedom, and the father of the University of Virginia."

The United States frigate, Philadelphia, struck on a rock in the Tripolitan harbor, and, before she could be gotten off, was captured, and her officers and crew made prisoners. Lieutenant Decatur, with seventy-six men, sailed into the harbor at night, right under the guns of the enemy's castle, boarded the ship in spite of her swarthy defenders, set her on fire, and escaped without losing a man.

Louisiana Purchase.—By a secret treaty, Spain had given up her vast territory west of the Mississippi to Napoleon, who, before he had taken possession, sold it to Jefferson, for fifteen million dollars (1803). This was called the Louisiana purchase. It gave the United States full control of the Mississippi and of all its tributaries, and nearly doubled its territory.

Had the Spanish or the French continued to hold that territory, another nation might have sprung up, with cities and towns on the western bank of the great river, to share the navigation of its waters with the people of the United States. This would have led to endless quarrels, and standing armies, maintained at great expense, would have been necessary to preserve peace. Napoleon said, "This accession of territory strengthens forever the power of the United States; and I have just given to England a maratime rival that will, sooner or later, humble her pride."

Expedition of Lewis and Clarke.—Only the border of the

MAP OF
TERRITORIAL
ACQUISITIONS
OF THE
UNITED STATES.
PACIFIC OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
GULF OF MEXICO
MEXICO
CANADA
Acquired by discovery in 1792 and exploration in 1805
BOUNDARY AS ADJUSTED
Acquired from Mexico by conquest and treaty in 1848 and 1853
LOUISIANA
This region was ceded by France in 1803 for $15,000,000
Louisiana was purchased by the United States
THE TREATY WITH SPAIN
Acquired by annexation in 1845
GADSDEN PURCHASE 1853
Florida was ceded by Spain in 1819
Astoria
Columbia R.
Clark R.
Missouri R.
Platte R.
Arkansas R.
Red R.
Colorado R.
Gila R.
Rio Grande
Mississippi R.
Ohio R.
Tennessee R.
St. Lawrence R.
SUPERIOR
MICHIGAN
HURON
ERIE
ONTARIO
Montreal
Ticonderoga
Boston
Providence
New Haven
New York
Trenton
Philadelphia
Cape May
Chesapeake B.
Cape Hatteras
Wilmington
Charleston
Savannah
St. Augustine
Bahama Is.
Cuba
Drake 1579
San Francisco
Pittsburg
Wyoming
Dover
Concord

new purchase had been explored, and the President, acting under the authority of Congress, appointed Meriwether Lewis and William Clarke to conduct an exploring expedition. They were to learn "what the formation of the country was, what great rivers watered it, what its minerals, plants, and animals were, what Indian tribes inhabited it, and whether they were disposed to be friendly."

There were forty-five men in all, and they took provisions, tents for camping, fire-arms, and presents for the Indians. Starting in small boats from St. Louis, then a mere trading-post, in the spring of 1804, they ascended the Missouri to a point near the mouth of the Platte River, where a council was held with several Indian tribes, at a place since called Council Bluffs. Proceeding on their journey, they traced the great river to its source, crossed what were then called the Stony Mountains, and finding a small stream flowing to the west, they followed it until they reached the Pacific Ocean, at the mouth of the Columbia. Lewis and Clarke were the first to carry the American flag across the continent.

The expedition returned, after an absence of two years and four months, bringing accounts of immense plains, of mountain ranges with snowy peaks, of mighty rivers with grand rapids and water-falls, of wide-spread forests, of vast herds of buffalo, and of Indian tribes before unknown. Jefferson wrote, "Never did a similar event excite more joy throughout the United States. The humblest of its citizens had taken a lively interest in the issue of the journey, and looked forward with impatience for the information it would furnish."

The Slave Trade.—Since the landing of a cargo of slaves by the Dutch at Jamestown, nearly two hundred years before, slavery had gone on increasing, and the trade in

slaves had been kept up. When the Constitution was framed, it was agreed that there should be no interference with the foreign slave trade until January 1, 1808. Jefferson called the attention of Congress to the subject (1807), urging that, "morality, reputation, and the best interests of the country, demand that the traffic in slaves be forbidden." After an exciting debate, a law was passed, forbidding the importation of slaves after the year 1807.

In spite of this act, ship-loads of slaves from Africa were brought to the United States; and the trade did not cease until the leading nations made it piracy, and combined to break it up. It was not until slavery was destroyed by the Civil War that the slave trade between the states of the Union ceased.

Commercial Troubles.— England and France were at war, and each nation tried to cut off all trade with the other, and claimed the right to take any ship engaged in such trade, so that an American ship was in constant danger of being captured by one or the other of the two powers. American vessels when approaching French ports were seized by the British as prizes, and when approaching the harbors of Great Britain were seized by the cruisers of France. In this way the commerce of the United States was greatly injured. Besides this, the English claimed the right to search American vessels for British subjects, and actually fired on an American vessel which refused to allow the search to be made.

The Embargo Act.—Congress then passed (1807) what is known as the Embargo Act, keeping all American ships in the ports of the United States. In this way the government hoped to force France and England to allow trade to go on in peace; but the law ruined thousands of our merchants, without greatly injuring our enemies, and was repealed after being in force but fourteen months.

The First Steamboat.—While these things were going on, Robert Fulton was building his first steamboat. The idea

of steam navigation was not entirely new, for John Fitch had built a boat to ply on the Delaware (1786), and, earlier still, James Rumsey had tried one on the Potomac. Fulton's boat seems to have been the first one suited to the carrying of both passengers and freight. It was launched in 1807, and made the trip from New York to Albany at the rate of five miles an hour, against wind and tide.

While Fulton was building his boat no one gave him an encouraging word, and nearly everybody laughed and spoke of it as "Fulton's Folly." But his invention has proved one of the greatest blessings to mankind.

New State.—During Jefferson's administration, Ohio was admitted to the Union, making the seventeenth state.

Election of Madison.—The Federalists blamed Jefferson for the injury to trade caused by the Embargo Act, and they hoped to elect the next President; but the Republicans, who clamored for war with Great Britain, succeeded in choosing James Madison, of Virginia.

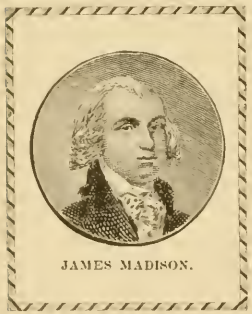
Topics.—Tell about—

1. Jefferson's habits.
2. War with Tripoli.
3. The Louisiana purchase.
4. Expedition of Lewis and Clarke.
5. The slave trade.
6. Commercial troubles.
7. The embargo act.
8. The first steamboat.
9. New state.
10. The election of Madison.

Chapter XXIX.

MADISON'S ADMINISTRATION—1809-1817.

Indian Troubles.—The Indians of the Northwest were receiving very low prices for their furs, white settlers were occupying the lands where they had hunted so long, and they were becoming very uneasy. Their powerful chief, Tecumseh, urged them to take up arms against the whites. While he was going from tribe to tribe, trying to form a union in order to restore his race to their ancient power, William Henry Harrison, then Governor of Indian Territory —Northwest Territory with Ohio cut off—marched against a large Indian town near the mouth of the Tippecanoe River, and defeated the savages with great loss (1811). This victory gave Harrison the name, "Hero of Tippecanoe."



JAMES MADISON.

War with England.—When Madison became President, he found the English still claiming the right to search American vessels for British subjects, and it was said that several thousand men, on whom England had no just claim, had been taken from our ships, and made to fight under the British flag.

The outrages became so great that Congress finally declared war (1812). There was much opposition to this measure, and a great outcry went up against it from New England, whose trade and shipping would be the prey of England's thousand ships.

Hull's Surrender.—The war began with an attempt to invade Canada, and two armies were sent against it. One of them, under General Hull, surrendered at Detroit, without a battle. By this victory, the British gained the military stores at Detroit, and the whole of the Territory of Michigan. The other army also was unsuccessful.

The Americans were lying in their trenches eager to fire at the advancing foe, when Hull, apparently frightened, ordered the white flag to be run up, and then made haste to surrender his entire army. Hull was afterwards tried for cowardice, and sentenced to be shot, but the President, feeling pity for one who had faithfully served his country in the Revolution, pardoned him.

Victories on the Ocean.—Although the land forces were unsuccessful, the navy won several brilliant victories. The frigate Constitution, under Captain Isaac Hull, nephew of General Hull, met the powerful English frigate Guerriere, off the Banks of Newfoundland, and, after a sharp engagement, compelled her to surrender (August 19, 1812). Under different commanders, the Constitution gained several other victories, and the sailors named her "Old Ironsides."

"Old Ironsides" became the pride of the navy, but the time came when, on account of age, it was thought that she was no longer fit for service, and the Secretary of the Navy decided to destroy her. The grand old ship was dear to the people, public sentiment condemned the decision, and "Old Ironsides" was

saved and turned into a school-ship, where boys are fitted for service in the navy. The following poem by O. W. Holmes, published in the papers of the country, touched the hearts of all, and, no doubt, helped to stay the destroying hand:

OLD IRONSIDES.

Ay, tear her tattered ensign down!
Long has it waved on high,
And many an eye has danced to see
That banner in the sky:
Beneath it rung the battle-shout,
And burst the cannon's roar;
The meteor of the ocean-air
Shall sweep the clouds no more.

Her deck, once red with heroes' blood,
Where knelt the vanquished foe,
When winds were hurrying o'er the flood,
And waves were white below,
No more shall feel the victor's tread,
Or know the conquered knee;
The harpies of the shore shall pluck
The eagle of the sea.

Oh, better that her shattered hulk
Should sink beneath the wave;
Her thunders shook the mighty deep,
And there should be her grave.
Nail to the mast her holy flag,
Set every threadbare sail,
And give her to the god of storms—
The lightning and the gale.

Two months after the victory of the Constitution, the American sloop-of-war Wasp, in command of Captain Jones, captured the British brig Frolic, off the coast of North Carolina; and a week later, Stephen Decatur, of the frigate United States, compelled the frigate Macedonian to haul down her flag.

Privateers.—Sixteen naval battles were fought on the ocean, in eleven of which our brave sailors were victorious. American privateers from New York, Boston, Charleston, and other ports also swept the sea in all directions, and inflicted great injuries on British merchantmen, no less than one thousand of which were captured during the war.

Several touching examples of courage are recorded. In the fight between "Old Ironsides" and the Java, an American sailor was wounded and lay on the deck in a dying condition until the Java surrendered, when, lifting himself up, he gave three cheers for his country's flag, then fell back to rise no more. "Don't give up the ship," were the dying words of Captain Lawrence, of the Chesapeake, when the shot of the British frigate Shannon had swept every superior officer from the deck, killed or wounded, and there was no officer left on board to surrender the ship, or to haul down her colors.

Perry's Victory.—The English had a fleet on Lake Erie, and were masters on the Great Lakes. Oliver H. Perry, a young man who had never been in battle, was sent to take charge of the American fleet, a part of which was to be built from trees still growing in the forest. By hard work, nine ships, carrying fifty-four guns, were made ready for battle; but Perry had to wait for sailors to be sent in stage coaches from the Atlantic Coast before he could set sail.

At last, an English fleet of six ships hove in sight, and it was not long before the battle began. Perry's flagship was soon shattered, and nearly all her men killed or wounded, so, getting into an open small-boat, he bore his flag to another ship, where he continued to fight until the British fleet surrendered. After the victory, he wrote to his commander, General Harrison, on the back of an old letter, "We have met the enemy, and they are ours—two ships, two brigs, one schooner, and one sloop" (September 10, 1813). (*See map, page* 155.)

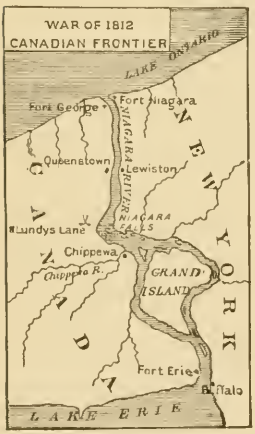
Battle of the Thames.—When General Harrison received the news of Perry's victory, he moved his forces across Lake Erie, and attacked the British at the river Thames, where a severe battle was fought. The regulars were soon forced to surrender, but their Indian allies, under the brave Tecumseh, would not yield. The battle raged fiercely, and for a time the war-whoop of the Indian chief was heard above the roar of the conflict. But the great chieftain fell,

and the savages, no longer encouraged by his voice, fled in despair. By this victory, the Americans regained what Hull had lost, and the alliance of the Indian tribes in the Northwest was broken.

In the battle of the Thames, Tecumseh led a body of horsemen. "The American riders plunged with a yell on the British line. Their five hundred rifles cracked at once, strewing the ground with men. It was a single blow, and the battle was over in that part of the field. * * * Tecumseh led his men gallantly forward, and for a few minutes the contest was sharp and bloody. At length he fell, when the savages, with a loud whoop, turned and fled."—*Headley's Second War with England.*

The Creek War.—The following spring (1814), the Creek Indians of Alabama took up the hatchet against the whites. Men, women, and children were murdered, and terror seized upon the people of the South.

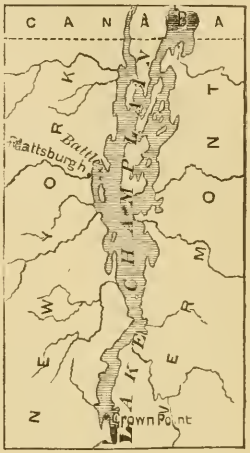
General Jackson, with a force of volunteers, defeated the chief, Red Eagle in a great battle, in which no quarter was given; women and children, as well as warriors, huddled together and met their doom. This victory broke the spirit of the Creeks.



Lundy's Lane.—In midsummer, Lieutenant Winfield Scott gained two victories over the British in Canada, one at Chippewa, the other at Lundy's Lane. On account of his bravery, Scott, who afterwards became General, was called "The Hero of Lundy's Lane."

Victory on Lake Champlain.—In September, the British sent a large force against Plattsburg, which was defended by only a few hundred men. At the same time, a British fleet on Lake Champlain sailed to attack the American fleet under Commodore Macdonough, lying in Plattsburg Bay. The British land and naval forces

made the attack at the same moment, but Macdonough's fleet gained a complete victory, and, when night came on, the land forces of the enemy hastily retreated, leaving their sick and wounded behind.



Washington in the Hands of the British.— The following year, the British plundered many Southern towns, and a large force entered Washington. They set fire to the Capitol, the President's house, and some other buildings, and nothing was left but their smoke-blackened walls.

Baltimore Attacked.— The British troops, fearing an uprising of the people, stole out of Washington in the night, making their way towards Baltimore, the next point attacked. The regulars succeeded in getting near the defenses of the city, but halted to hear from the fleet which had been bombarding Fort McHenry, the chief defense of the harbor. As the fort withstood the fire, and the British saw no prospect of success, the troops were embarked, and the fleet sailed away.

Francis S. Key, author of the song entitled "The Star-Spangled Banner," was detained on one of the British ships. All night long, while the bombardment was going on, he thought of the banner that floated proudly over the fort at the close of day, and wondered if he should see it at dawn. Between midnight and dawn, as he paced the deck, he composed the song, and wrote the substance of it on an old letter which he happened to have in his pocket.

"O, say, can you see by the dawn's early light
What so proudly we hailed at the twilight's last gleaming,
Whose broad stripes and bright stars, through the clouds of the fight,
O'er the ramparts we watched were so gallantly streaming?
And the rocket's red glare, the bomb bursting in air,
Gave proof through the night that our flag was still there:
O, say, does the star-spangled banner yet wave
O'er the land of the free and the home of the brave?"

Battle of New Orleans.—A force of twelve thousand men under General Pakenham, attacked New Orleans, which was defended by General Jackson, with a much smaller number of troops (January 8, 1815). The Americans fought behind breastworks of earth, the fire from their rifles mowed down the enemy, and the plain was strewn with the dead and dying. The British could not stand this fire, and hastily withdrew to their ships, their loss being over two thousand, while that of the Americans was but eight or ten men.

This was the last battle of the war, and was fought two weeks after the treaty of peace was signed at Ghent (December 24, 1814). Had the telegraph then been in operation, all this bloodshed would have been spared.

Treaty of Peace.—The treaty at Ghent said not a word in regard to the right of search, the very thing the two nations had been quarreling about; but our navy had taught England a lesson, and she has never since tried to search a vessel carrying the stars and stripes.

Effects of the War.—The War of 1812-1815 did much to encourage the manufacture of cotton and woolen goods in the United States. Up to 1815 nearly all the cloths in the stores of the country were made in English looms. When the war broke out, cotton manufacture had not begun, and there were few sheep in America. The supply of English woolens and cotton goods was cut off by the war, and people were compelled to wear clothes made of flax, or flax and wool, called "linsey-woolsey." Shirts and undergarments were made from tow, the fibre of flax.

"The flax plant, when at the proper stage of growth, was pulled up by the roots, the earth shaken off, the plants bound in bundles, taken to a smooth patch of grass and spread out to be rotted by the sun and rain, then rebound, put into the barn, and during winter it was 'broken' and 'swingled' by the men and boys of the household, then combed, spun, and woven by the women. The wool which was used in the manufacture of 'linsey-woolsey' was carded by hand and spun on a large wheel."

The year before the battle of Bunker Hill, James Barber, of England, invented a loom which could be run by water-power, and, later, the Reverend Mr. Cartwright patented one which was placed in a factory at Manchester; but a mob of weavers burned the building because they feared power-looms would throw them out of employment (1791). As late as 1813 the power-looms of England were regarded as no better than hand-looms.

The American Power-Loom.—In 1814, Francis Cabot Lowell, a native of Amesbury, Massachusetts, educated at Harvard College, and Paul Moody, of Amesbury, a skillful machinist, brought out the first American power-loom, a machine far superior to any other of its kind known to the world.

"It was placed in position, the belts adjusted, a web for a piece of cloth thirty-seven inches wide, the standard sheeting cloth of the period, put in. When all was ready the belt was shifted to the moving pulley, and shuttles, treadles, harness, beam, and batten, all began their appointed movements. To those who beheld it, the loom seemed to be endowed with human intellect."

The Cotton-Weaving Industry.—This wonderful invention was the beginning of the great cotton-weaving industry of the United States. In 1816, sheetings were worth thirty cents a yard; in 1843, they could be bought for six and one-fourth cents. In 1823, a cotton mill was started at Lowell, Massachusetts, its looms driven by the Merrimac River. Other mills followed, until factory villages and cities dotted New England.

First Web of Cassimere.—Up to 1840, the power-loom was used to manufacture cotton alone; but in that year the loom was adapted to the weaving of woolen goods, and the first web of cassimere was produced.

What One Invention Has Done.—It will be seen that this one invention did much to free our country from its dependence on England, and that it has made of her a great manufacturing nation.

Laborers of every class have been helped by it. Large numbers of men were needed to build mills, to construct and run their machinery; thousands of girls have found employment in spinning and weaving. Cotton, and wool-growing

have become great industries; ships and cars are needed to supply the raw material for the factories, and take their goods to market; and farmers are kept busy raising food to supply all who are not food-producers.

A Tariff.—For the purpose of encouraging manufacturing industries, Congress passed a bill placing duties on imported goods. The measure was warmly supported by John C. Calhoun, the great Southern leader, in the belief that it would build up a home market for the South. The duty on cotton goods was fixed at six and one-fourth cents per yard (1816).

Topics.—Tell about—

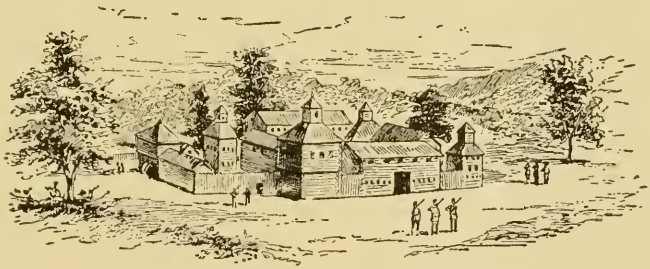
1. Indian troubles.
2. War with England.
3. Hull's surrender at Detroit.
4. Victories on the ocean.
5. "Old Ironsides."
6. Privateers.
7. Perry's victory.
8. Battle of the Thames.
9. The Creek war.
10. Lundy's Lane.
11. Victory on Lake Champlain.
12. The capture of Washington.
13. Attack on Baltimore.
14. "The Star-Spangled Banner."
15. Battle of New Orleans.
16. The treaty of peace.
17. Effects of the war.
18. The American power-loom.
19. The cotton-weaving industry.
20. The first web of cassimere.
21. What one invention has done.
22. A tariff.

Chapter XXX.

SETTLING THE GREAT VALLEY.

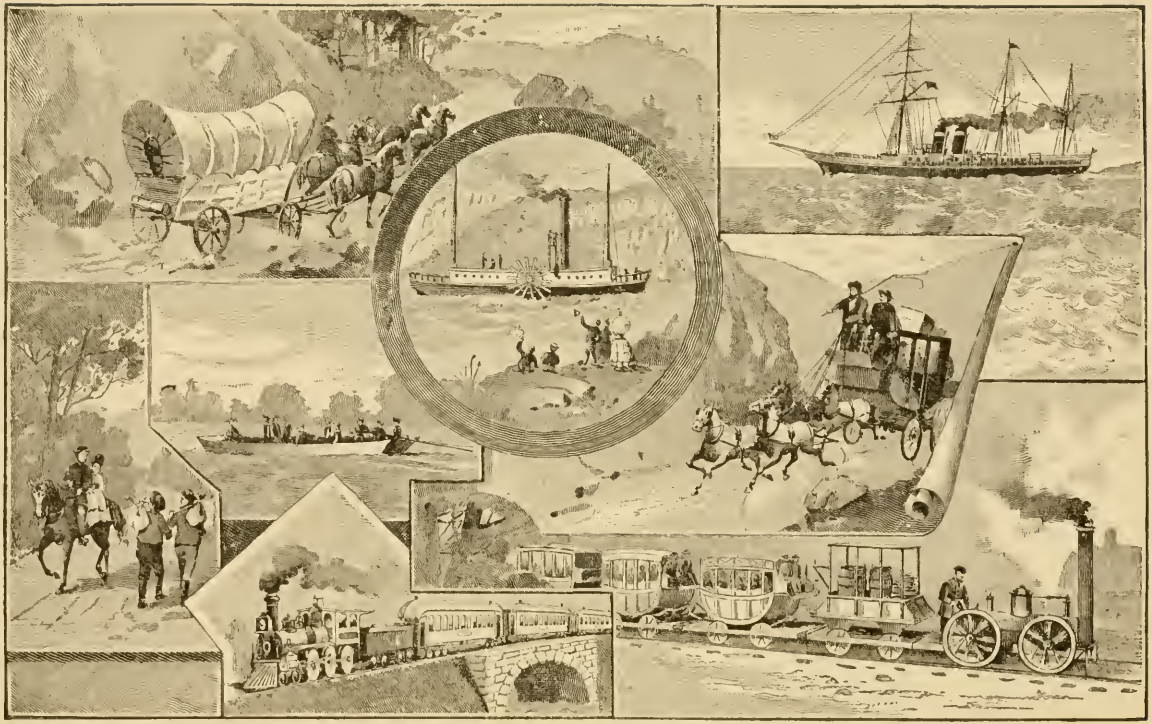
Ordinance of 1787.—In 1787 Congress passed an act for the government of the Northwest Territory, the region north of the Ohio and east of the Mississippi. One of the clauses of this act forbade slavery, and for this reason the act itself became noted as the Ordinance of 1787. Under it, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Wisconsin, and Michigan became free states.

Homes West of the Alleghanies.—Soon after the adoption of the ordinance, people began to seek homes west of



CINCINNATI IN 1787.

the Alleghanies. As there were no wagon roads, the earliest settlers carried the few things most needed on pack-horses. Later, the government opened a "National Road" from Cumberland, Maryland, to Wheeling, Virginia, now West Virginia. Along this road rolled an almost endless stream of covered wagons with emigrants for Ohio, Kentucky, and Indiana. Rafts and barges were built on the upper waters of the Ohio, on which families with their goods floated down the river, to form settlements on its banks.



MODES OF TRAVEL—THEN AND NOW.

Daniel Boone.—As early as 1759, Daniel Boone, a famous hunter, went, with five others, from North Carolina, to explore the forests of Kentucky. He was captured by Indians, but escaped, and reached home in 1771. Two years later, he took his family and other settlers to the wilds he had explored, where they were in perpetual danger from the savages. Boone had many hard fights with the Indians, and in 1775 built a fort on the Kentucky River. Several attacks were made on the fort, in which the red-skins were beaten back; but, in 1778 Boone was captured and taken to Detroit. He escaped and returned to his settlement, where his two sons fell in battle. After all his hardships, Boone lost his lands through a defect in the title, and went to a new wilderness in Missouri, to follow hunting and trapping. Died September 20, 1820. His remains, with those of his wife, rest in the cemetery at Frankfort, Kentucky.—*See Spark's American Biography.*

How the Settlers Lived.—In those early days, the settlers had no store goods, except such as were brought over the mountains from the East. They lived in log cabins, with floors of earth, or of hewn logs; sat on home-made stools; slept on bedsteads of poles; ate from wooden dishes; and wove most of the cloths they wore.

Going to Market.—When the settlers began to raise something to sell, flat-boats were loaded with produce, and floated down to New Orleans, the boatmen sometimes walking home. Water-roads were the chief dependence, and when steamboats began to run (1812), goods and produce were taken along the navigable streams of the "Great Valley." Settlements then sprung up and grew rapidly.

"In 1793, the first newspaper in the Northwest was issued at Cincinnati, while it was yet a town of about a hundred log cabins. In 1794, two large passenger boats ran regularly between Pittsburgh and Cincinnati. They were moved by oars, had bullet-proof sides, and were armed with cannon to protect them from the Indians."

The Orleans was the first steamboat built for Western rivers. She was launched at Pittsburgh, October 11, 1811. In August, 1818, the first steam vessel was set afloat on the Great Lakes. In 1886, there were eleven hundred and five steamers in use on Western rivers; twelve hundred and eighty on the Northern lakes; twenty-six hundred and sixty-two on the Atlantic and Gulf Coasts, and four hundred and twenty-five on the Pacific Coast.

Settlers from the Old World.—After the War of 1812, still larger numbers went West to seek their fortunes, and

settlers began to come to our shores from the Old World. Twenty-two thousand came the last year of Madison's administration (1817).

New States.—Two states were admitted to the Union,

CHICAGO IN 1830.

Louisiana (1812), and Indiana (1816). Louisiana took its name from Louis, King of France, and Indiana from the Indians.

Topics.—Tell about—

1. The Ordinance of 1787.
2. Homes west of the Alleghanies.
3. How the settlers lived.
4. Going to market.
5. Settlers from the Old World.
6. New states.

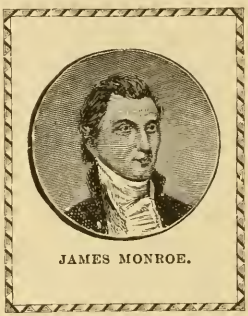
Chapter XXXI.

MONROE'S ADMINISTRATION—1817-1825.

Era of Good Feeling.—In the presidential election of 1816, James Monroe, the Republican candidate, was chosen over Rufus King, the Federalist. In 1820, Monroe was re-elected for a second term without opposition; but for form's sake, one elector voted for John Quincy Adams, so that it might be said that no man save Washington had received every vote for President. The war was over, and

for a time the two parties worked for the same measures. There was an "era of good feeling."

War with the Seminoles.—The Seminole Indians in Florida, many of whom had married runaway slaves, were giving a good deal of trouble to slaveholders on the southern border, and General Jackson was sent against them. He did not succeed in subduing them, but marched his troops into their country, which then belonged to Spain. This led to difficulty with the Spanish Government, which was settled by the sale of Florida to the United States for five million dollars (1819).



JAMES MONROE.

First Steamship to Cross the Ocean.—The steamship Savannah was the first to cross the Atlantic to Europe (1819). As she neared the coast of Ireland, the people on shore thought she was on fire, and sent out a ship to her relief. She carried sails which were spread when the wind was fair, just as the ocean steamers do to-day. Although this voyage was successful, ocean navigation did not really begin until twenty years later (1838), when the Sirius and the Great Western made the trip from England to the United States.

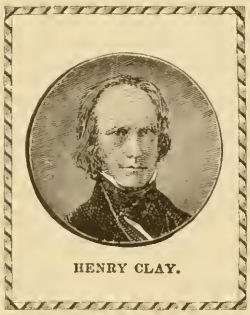
Why Slavery Did Not Die Out.—The invention of the spinning-jenny and the power-loom led to the establishment of immense cotton factories in England and New England, and to a great demand for cotton, which, by the aid of Whitney's gin, could be raised by slave labor in the warm states of the South at a large profit. This caused a great demand for slaves to till new and vast plantations; and, as the foreign slave trade had been prohibited, the cotton-planters bought their slaves in Virginia, Kentucky, and other border states, and slave-raising for Southern markets became a profitable business. In this way, all the Southern States came to be strongly in favor of slavery, and wished to see it spread over new territories. (*See Jefferson's administration, page 152.*)

Slave dealers became common all over the South, and slaves were bought and sold just as people in the North buy and sell horses. A strong man or woman who could endure hard work on the cotton plantations brought a large sum; good cooks, carpenters, and blacksmiths also found a ready sale; house servants and waiting maids were in demand; but the infirm and aged brought very little. Slave markets were found in all the chief cities, and men, women, and children were often put up at auction to be sold to the highest bidder.

The Feeling in the North.—The people of the North were becoming more and more opposed to slavery. They thought it wrong to buy and sell men, and wished to see the territories kept open to free labor.

Slavery in the Territories.—During Monroe's administration several new states were admitted, and the great question was whether they should come in with or without slavery. For a time a free state and a slave state came in by turns. Indiana, a free state, was followed by Mississippi, a slave state (1817); then Illinois, free (1818), and Alabama, slave (1819); Maine, free (1820), and Missouri, slave (1821).

The Missouri Compromise.—When Missouri asked to be admitted to the Union, members of Congress from the North opposed the admission of any more slave states. A great and angry contest followed, in which the right and wrong of slavery were freely discussed. At last, mainly through the efforts of Henry Clay, the question was settled by what is known as the Missouri Compromise, or the Compromise of 1820. Under this measure, Missouri was to come in as a slave state, but in all other territory west of the Mississippi and north of the parallel of 36° 30′ north latitude, the southern border of Missouri, slavery was prohibited. Nothing was said of slavery south of that line.



HENRY CLAY.

Henry Clay, orator and statesman, was born near Richmond, Virginia, April 12, 1777. His father was a Baptist preacher, who died when Henry was but six years old. His mother, a noble woman, married again ten years later, and moved to Kentucky, leaving Henry, the fifth of seven children, a clerk in a retail store. He soon found employment as a copyist in the office of the High Court of Chancery, where he remained four years. He then studied law, was admitted to the bar, and, though not yet twenty-one, followed his mother to Kentucky, opened an office at Lexington, and soon rose to eminence in his profession. When Kentucky separated from her parent, Virginia, Mr. Clay besought the convention that framed the constitution to make provision for the abolition of slavery, but he was overruled. He became a United States Senator; was for many years Speaker of the House of Representatives; was Commissioner of Peace after the War of 1812-14; and was Secretary of State under John Quincy Adams. He again became a member of the United States Senate from 1831 till 1842; was thrice a candidate for the presidency, and once came near being elected. He was Senator for the last time from 1849 till 1852. Mr. Clay always strongly favored the protection of home industries and internal improvements; was the author of several great compromise measures; and supported the American policy of President Monroe. Died at Washington, June 29, 1852. In the cemetery at Frankfort, Kentucky, stands a fine monument erected to his memory.

The Monroe Doctrine.—The Spanish colonies in South America had rebelled and established governments of their own. Spain was too weak to make them submit to her rule, and it was thought that some other nations of Europe were about to come to her aid. President Monroe, therefore, asserted in a message to Congress (1823), that, "An attempt by any nation of Europe to reduce an independent nation of North or South America to the condition of a colony would not be viewed with indifference by the United States." He also said, "As a principle, the American continents are henceforth not to be considered as subjects for future colonization by any European power." This is what is known as the Monroe Doctrine. The governments of the Old World were thus plainly told that the people of the New World must be allowed to manage their own affairs.

The Tariff Question.—One of the great questions of this administration was that of the tariff, or duty, on goods brought from foreign coun-

tries. The new Whig party favored a high tariff on such goods as could be made at home. The tariff, it was argued, would keep foreign manufacturers from underselling our own; and cotton, woolen, and other factories would spring up on our streams, giving employment to thousands of workmen, who would consume the food raised on American farms, and thus save the cost of transportation to distant lands. As this duty was designed to protect home manufactures, it was called a "*protective tariff.*"

On the other hand, the Democrats favored what are called low duties. They thought that duties on foreign goods made the prices high, and helped the manufacturer at the expense of other people; and they claimed that more money would be received by the government if the duties were low, and people would have to pay less tax for its support. The Whig party prevailed, and duties on imports were increased (1824).

BUNKER HILL MONUMENT.

La Fayette's Visit.—Near the close of Monroe's administration (1824) the United States was visited by La Fayette. He passed through the country receiving the homage of crowds assembled to greet him as the nation's guest. Patriots who had fought by his side came forth to meet him, and on the old battle-fields he was welcomed by a throng of shouting freemen. To show the gratitude of the nation, Congress presented him with two hundred thousand dollars and a township of land.

Bunker Hill Monument.—The corner-stone of Bunker Hill monument was laid by General La Fayette, on the 17th of June, 1825, the fiftieth anniversary of the

battle. The monument is built of granite, is two hundred and twenty-one feet high, and stands on the spot where the redoubt of earth was thrown up on Breed's Hill.

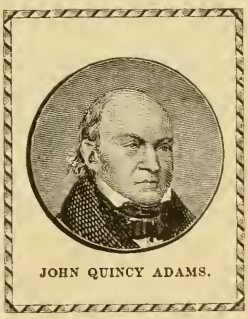
Topics.—Tell about—

1. The era of good feeling.
2. War with the Seminoles.
3. The first ocean steamboat.
4. Why slavery did not die out.
5. Slave dealers.
6. The feeling in the North.
7. Slavery in the territories.
8. The Missouri Compromise.
9. The Monroe Doctrine.
10. The tariff question.
11. La Fayette's visit.
12. Bunker Hill monument.

Chapter XXXII.

JOHN QUINCY ADAMS' ADMINISTRATION—1825-1829.

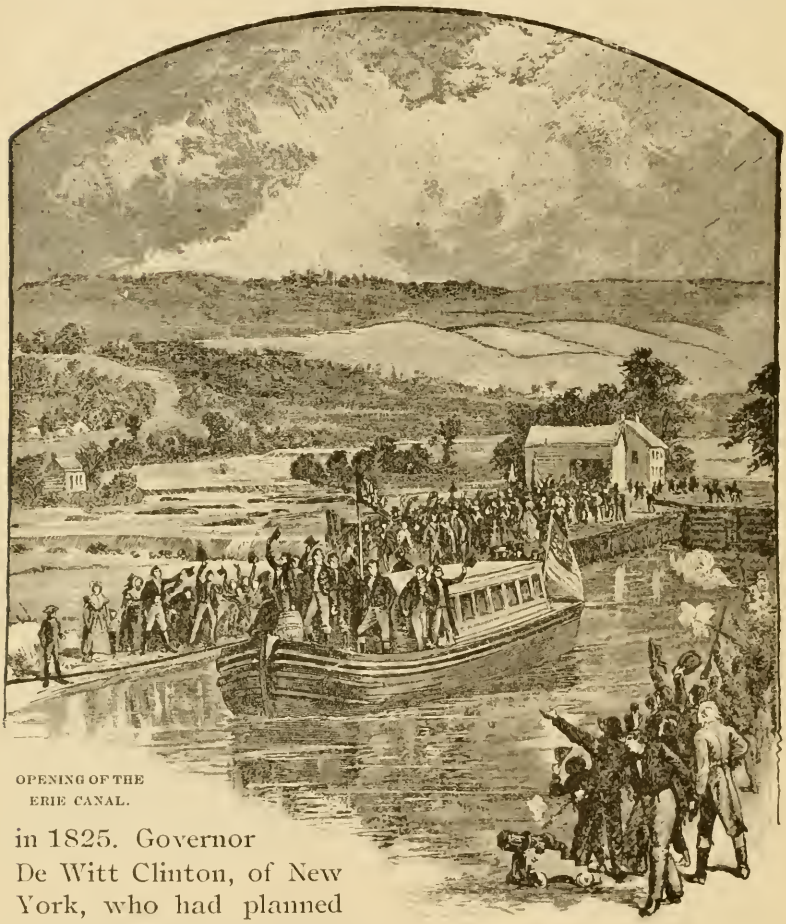
All the presidents up to this time had taken part in the Revolutionary War, or in founding the government, but John Quincy Adams was only nine years old when his father signed the Declaration of Independence.



JOHN QUINCY ADAMS.

Condition of the Country.—During Adams' administration the country was at peace, and rapidly growing in wealth and population. Most of the Indian tribes east of the Mississippi had sold their lands to the government, and had been removed west of that river, and the interior of the country was now open for settlement. What the country most needed was better, quicker, and cheaper transportation, and it had not long to wait.

The Erie Canal.—A system of canals had already been begun, and the Erie Canal, connecting the Great Lakes with the Hudson and the port of New York, was opened



OPENING OF THE ERIE CANAL.

in 1825. Governor De Witt Clinton, of New York, who had planned the canal, and carried the work forward in spite of ridicule and strong opposition, was, at its opening, borne its whole length in a barge, and

welcomed at every town by the ringing of bells and the firing of cannon.

The canal soon became the great route between the East and the West. From early spring to late autumn, passengers, and merchandise of every kind needed by the people of the West, flowed through it in a constant stream, while in the other direction the products of Western farms poured into Eastern markets.

Death of Two Great Men.—The 4th of July, 1826, is memorable for the death of John Adams and Thomas Jefferson. Both had signed the Declaration of Independence; and both had filled the highest office their countrymen could give. Though they had differed and hotly disputed in their earlier days, they became warm friends and frequently wrote letters to each other in later life. Death came to them on the fiftieth anniversary of their country's independence. The last words of Jefferson were, "Is this the Fourth?" and the last words of Adams, "Thomas Jefferson still lives." The people of the village where Adams lived were celebrating the day, and he had sent the toast, "Independence forever." As he lay dying his watchers heard the distant shouts of the multitude, called forth by the reading of the old patriot's last message.

First Railroad.—The greatest event of that day was the opening of the first American railway (1827). It led from the wharves at Quincy, Massachusetts, to granite quarries three miles away. At first, the cars were drawn by horses; but after two years a locomotive engine was brought over from England and used on the road. The first passenger train was run on the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad in 1830.

What People Thought.—Many people ridiculed the idea of a railroad, thinking that the ox cart and "one-horse chaise" were good enough for them. No one dreamed that within fifty years railroads would be built almost everywhere; that they would bring all parts of our great country near together; that the cars would carry the products of our fields, our mines, our factories,—everything that we buy or sell; that in 1889 there would be more than one hundred and fifty thousand miles of railroad in the United States.

Temperance Societies.—In 1789, the very year of Washington's inauguration, two hundred farmers of Litchfield County, Connecticut, agreed that they would not use any distilled liquor in doing their farm work the ensuing season. Similar societies were formed in 1811; but it was not until 1826 that the first public temperance society in the United States was organized, and total abstinence was not required until a meeting of a national convention in Saratoga, New

York, ten years later. The Washingtonian movement began in Baltimore in 1840, six men of intemperate habits signing a pledge to totally abstain from intoxicating drinks. On the first anniversary of the society, one thousand reformed drunkards walked in procession.

Down to this period, drunkenness had been an enormous evil in our own country, as well as in Europe. For a gentleman to get drunk after dinner was no offense against the rules of polite society; and it was not very improper for a clergyman to own a distillery. Rum was kept by all families, and visitors, callers, or workmen expected an offer of some kind of liquor. People thought they must take a morning glass to promote appetite, an evening glass to insure sociability; the farmer needed it to keep him cool in summer and warm in winter. The well must have it in order to keep from being sick, and the sick must drink to get well. It was said to be good for everything.

Politics.—President Adams was a Whig, and his party placed a high duty on foreign manufactures. The factories of New England increased, and manufacturers were prosperous; but the people of the West and South who lived by farming were opposed to the tariff, and Mr. Adams was not re-elected.

Topics.—Tell what you can of—

1. John Quincy Adams.
2. Condition of the country.
3. The Erie Canal.
4. Death of two great men.
5. The first railroad.
6. What people thought.
7. Temperance societies.
8. Politics.

Chapter XXXIII.

ANDREW JACKSON'S ADMINISTRATION—1829-1837.

General Andrew Jackson, "The Hero of New Orleans," was chosen by the Democrats, and held the office of President for eight years. He had but little book-learning, his temper was violent, his manner rough, his speech blunt; but he was honest, and aimed to do what he believed to be

right, in spite of all opposition. He was so firm, or unyielding in his policy, that his party gave him the name of "Old Hickory."

State Rights.—From the beginning of the government, some had claimed that a state had a right to set aside or refuse to obey any law of Congress; that it could leave the Union if it chose, or, in other words, that the authority of the state was superior to that of the general government, and ought to be obeyed when there was disagreement. This was known as the doctrine of State Rights.

ANDREW JACKSON.

The people of the South were much against the high tariff, and South Carolina passed a law allowing foreign goods to come into her ports without paying the duty required by the general government. She also threatened to leave the Union if the United States tried to collect the duty; and medals were struck off with the inscription, "J. C. Calhoun, First President of the Southern Confederacy."

Jackson was not friendly to the tariff, but it was his duty to see the law of the United States enforced, and he lost no time in issuing a proclamation telling the people that it must be obeyed, and that the State could not leave the Union. At the same time he sent ships of war and an armed force to South Carolina, in command of General Winfield Scott, and the trouble was soon brought to an end.

This event threw the whole country into great excitement, and for a time it seemed as though there might be civil war. But Henry Clay again came forward with a compromise, and Congress soon passed a bill which gradually reduced the duties of which Carolina complained, and the two parties were satisfied.

The United States Bank.— Jackson was much opposed to the United States Bank, and took strong ground against it in his first message. He believed that the government funds deposited in the bank were used to enrich the managers, to the injury of the people; that the bank rewarded those who helped, and punished those who opposed its plans. Congress passed a bill renewing the charter of the bank, which was about to expire. Jackson refused to approve, or vetoed, the bill, and it did not become a law. He afterwards removed the government funds, and had them placed in several of the state banks. This act caused excitement all over the country. The bank was obliged to give up business, and its stockholders lost all their capital.

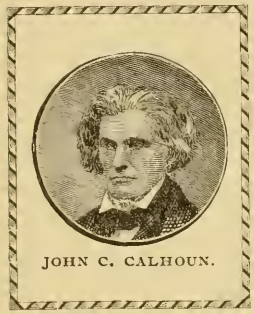
John Caldwell Calhoun was born in Abbeville District, South Carolina, March 18, 1782. He was graduated at Yale, studied law at a school in Litchfield, Connecticut, and began the practice of his profession in his native district when twenty-five years of age. He was thoughtful and persevering, and soon took high rank as a lawyer. Having a taste for politics he entered that field, and soon became a member of the state legislature, and then of Congress. He was appointed Secretary of War under President Monroe, chosen Vice-President in 1824, and again in 1828. Was elected United States Senator in 1831, Secretary of State in 1844-5, and again became Senator in 1845. In the Senate Calhoun took first rank as a debater. He had great influence in his own state, and his doctrine of State Rights led her to the verge of civil war in 1832, and caused her to inaugurate secession and the great Rebellion. Died in Washington, March 31, 1850.

The United States Bank was recommended by Alexander Hamilton, first Secretary of the Treasury, and a bill to establish it was passed by Congress and signed by Washington in 1791. It was established at Philadelphia, with branches at different points. The opposition to it became so strong that its charter was not renewed at its expiration, in 1811; and from that time on to 1816 all the banking business of the country was conducted by local banks. At the close of the war of 1812-15, all the local banks had suspended specie payment, and the people were so sorely pressed for good money that they clamored for another United States Bank as a means of relief. One was chartered in 1816, and went into operation in 1817, with a capital of thirty-five million dollars, of which amount the government subscribed seven million dollars, and individuals twenty-eight million dollars.

Wild Speculation.—The state banks which had received the funds made large loans and money became so plenty that the price of everything went up, and

people began to speculate in the hope of becoming suddenly rich. All over the West, towns were laid out and lots were sold at high prices, where there was not a house, or, at most, only a few cheap shells. In a little time the excitement was over, and the rich owners of corner-lots were not worth a dollar.

Mormons.—In 1830, there sprung up a sect called Mormons, or Latter-day Saints, whose leader, Joseph Smith, claimed to be a prophet, or seer. The first community of Mormons was founded at Kirtland, Ohio; the next, at Independence, Missouri; the third, at Nauvoo, Illinois, where they built a thriving little city and erected a splendid temple, which they dedicated to the worship of God.



JOHN C. CALHOUN.

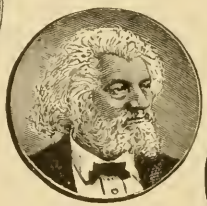
But they had sore trouble with their non-believing neighbors, and each place was, in turn, deserted. At Nauvoo, their prophet was killed by a mob, and his followers sought shelter at a place on the Missouri River, which they named Kane. From this point men were sent forward into the wilderness to spy out the "promised land for an everlasting habitation." The Great Salt Lake Valley was chosen, and the Mormon pilgrims, guided by their new leader, Brigham Young, pressed forward to their inheritance (1847-1848). They soon became a strong and prosperous colony, founding Salt Lake City, and building a tabernacle with seats for thousands of worshipers.

The Mormons accept both the Bible and the Book of Mormon as the word of God; and believe in a prophet who stands at the head of their church. Their religion allows a man to marry more than one wife, some of the wealthy leaders taking many. The practice of polygamy, as it is called, has led to much trouble, most people regarding it as a disgrace to our country; and laws to suppress it have been passed by Congress. Many people are living in Salt Lake City who are not in sympathy with the doctrines of the Mormons, and all legislation is slowly passing out of the hands of this strange sect.

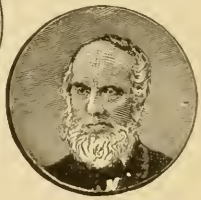
An Anti-Slavery Paper.—In 1831, William Lloyd Garrison established a weekly paper in Boston, called "The Liberator." He took for its motto, "Our country is the world—our countrymen are all mankind," and argued in favor of the emancipation of the slaves. In 1832, those who agreed with Garrison formed an anti-slavery society, and other societies of the kind soon sprung up elsewhere. The publication of the Liberator caused excitement in the North as well as the South. The legislature of Georgia offered a large reward for Garrison's head, and he was mobbed in Boston. President Jackson tried to have a law passed by Congress forbidding the carrying of anti-slavery books and papers in the mails.

WM. LLOYD GARRISON.

WENDELL PHILLIPS.



FREDERICK DOUGLASS.



JOHN G. WHITTIER.

The Black Hawk War.—During Jackson's term (1832) there was trouble with the Indians. The Sacs and Foxes in the Northwest, under a noted leader, named Black Hawk, refused to submit to the authority of the United States, and had to be subdued by force.

The Florida War.—As the Seminoles living in Florida would not leave their homes for others provided for them west of the Mississippi, a force was sent to remove them, and war followed (1835). The Seminoles took refuge in the swamps, or everglades, where the soldiers were unable to reach them, and the war lasted a long time, costing the government many lives, and thirty million dollars, before the Indians gave up, almost extinct.

Osceola.—The principal chief, Osceola, had taken a half-breed wife who was born in the everglades, and once when she went with him to one of the United States forts, she was seized as a slave by the former owner of her mother. Osceola was placed in irons while she was taken into captivity; and, after his release, he pledged himself to vengeance against the whites. He became the leader in the war, till treacherously seized under a flag of truce. He was then confined in a fort until his death.—*Higginson.*

William Lloyd Garrison, the pioneer of the modern anti-slavery movement in the United States, was born in Newburyport, Massachusetts, December 12, 1804. Died May 24, 1879. He learned the business of printing, and became a writer for the press in early life. All his writings show a philanthropic spirit, and deep sympathy for the poor and the oppressed. In 1829, he joined Benjamin Lundy, a Quaker abolitionist, in the publication of a paper at Baltimore. In the first issue of the paper under their joint control, Mr. Garrison denounced the taking of a cargo of slaves from that city to New Orleans as "domestic piracy." For this he was fined, and imprisoned until his fine was paid by a friend. He now traveled northward, delivering lectures, in which he called slavery a sin, and demanded its abolition in the name of God and humanity. From this time on, until 1863, when slavery was abolished, he continued to plead for the slave with tongue and pen. Mr. Garrison rested his cause wholly on moral grounds, never urging violence or the shedding of a drop of human blood.

John G. Whittier, the Quaker poet, was born at Haverhill, Massachusetts, December 17, 1807. He worked on the farm, and at shoemaking until eighteen, sending occasional poems to the local newspaper. From 1829 to 1836 he was editor of several newspapers. In 1833 he took up the cause of the slave, and never ceased his warfare against slavery until its fall in 1863. The spirit of humanity and patriotism shown in his writings make him very dear to the public. He died September 7, 1892.

Wendell Phillips was born in Boston in 1811, graduated at Harvard in 1831, and at the Cambridge law school in 1833. He joined the abolitionists, and gained a world-wide fame as an orator. The first person to interest him in this subject was Anne Terry Greene, who afterwards became his wife, his guide, and inspiration. His first great speech against slavery was delivered in Faneuil Hall, December, 1837, at a meeting "to notice in a suitable manner the murder of Rev. Elijah P. Lovejoy, at Alton, Illinois." Mr. Phillips remained a "Garrisonian abolitionist" to the end; he was also an advocate of temperance, labor, and other reforms. Died February 2, 1884.

Frederick Douglass, the most eminent colored man in this country, was a mulatto, the son of a slave mother. He was born near Easton, Maryland, about 1817, but lived in Baltimore after he was ten years of age, where he secretly taught himself to read and write. He fled from slavery when twenty-one years old, and going to New Bedford, Massachusetts, supported himself by day labor on the wharves and in the shops. He spoke in an anti-slavery meeting in Nantucket with much power, and was soon made agent of the Massachusetts Anti-Slavery Society. He lectured all over the Northern States, and in nearly all the large towns in England, on the subject of slavery. He edited two papers and published his autobiography. In 1876, he was appointed Marshal of the District of Columbia, and in 1889-91 he was Minister of the United States to the Republic of Hayti. He died February 20, 1895.

HENRY W. LONGFELLOW.
WM. CULLEN BRYANT.
EDGAR ALLAN POE.
NATHANIEL HAWTHORNE.
JAMES FENIMORE COOPER.
GEORGE BANCROFT.
WASHINGTON IRVING.
RALPH WALDO EMERSON

Education.— Most of the states had now established public schools, and people clearly saw that voters should be taught enough to enable them to vote wisely; that there is no safety for the state whose children are left to grow up in ignorance. Through the influence of Horace Mann, then secretary of her board of education, Massachusetts opened two normal schools, the first in the United States. More than sixty colleges had been established in the several states.

Newspapers.— With the introduction of the rail car and the steamboat came a change in the newspapers of the country. The daily paper of small price and wide circulation had its beginning during Jackson's administration. The New York Sun appeared in 1833, the New York Herald, in 1835.

American Writers.— Before this time Washington Irving's prose writings had been widely read, Cooper had begun his charming tales, Webster had issued the first edition of his dictionary, and Bryant, Dana, and Halleck were known as poets. The eight years of Jackson's administration mark the beginning of a real American literature, and the Englishman who had sneeringly asked, "Who reads an American book?" was soon answered. Poe published his first volume of poems in 1829; Whittier appeared in a prose volume, Legends of New England, in 1831; Longfellow in a volume on the poetry of Spain, in 1833; Bancroft published the first volume of his History of the United States in 1834; Emerson a volume called Nature, in 1835; Holmes a volume of poems in 1836; Hawthorne his first popular work, Twice Told Tales, in 1837; and Prescott's Ferdinand and Isabella appeared the same year.

The Use of Coal.— The business of coal mining has grown up within the last fifty or sixty years. Before the Revolutionary War it was known that coal ex-

isted in Pennsylvania, and so early as 1769, a blacksmith in Wyoming Valley used coal found on the surface of the ground. Forty years later he succeeded in burning it in a grate as fuel. During the Revolution it was used for blacksmiths' fires in the armory at Carlisle, Pennsylvania, and the Lehigh Coal Company was formed in 1792, but it did little more than purchase lands. So late as 1812 a quantity was taken to Philadelphia, but the owner could not sell it. It was not until 1825 that coal began to be used to any great extent in factories, and it was somewhat later when it became a common fuel in private houses. The whole amount of anthracite sent to market in 1820 was but three hundred and sixty-five wagon loads. Its first successful use on steamboats and railroads was in 1836-7.

Friction Matches.—In 1829, John Walker, of England, invented loco-foco, or friction matches. They found their way to this country in 1831, or 1832, and were sold for a cent apiece. In the fall of 1836, John D. Phillips, of Springfield, Massachusetts, received the first patent for their manufacture in the United States; but it was several years before they took the place of the flint and tinder, with which a fire was formerly struck. Before the introduction of matches, every housewife, just before retiring for the night, carefully covered her fire with ashes in order that it might keep till morning. When it went out, someone was sent post-haste to a neighbor's to obtain a supply. The writer of this recalls more than one early morning walk to a farm-house half a mile or more away, "on this errand bent." This one little invention has done much to increase the comforts of daily life. How could we get along without the match?

Mowing, Reaping, and Threshing Machines.—The Manning mower was invented in 1831, and the Ketcham in 1844; the McCormick reaper in 1831, and the Hussey reaper in 1833. Before this period, all the hay in the country was cut with the scythe, all the grain with the back-breaking sickle and cradle. These inventions have made the farmer's labor much lighter; they have enabled him to raise immense fields of grain, and increased the value of Western lands. American reaping machines are now used in all the countries of Europe where cereals are largely grown. Threshing machines were rare in the United States until 1835. At first they did nothing but thresh. Then came inventions for separating and cleaning. Many persons now living can remember when nearly all the grain was threshed with a flail or by tramping with horses or oxen

Removing Political Opponents.—General Jackson was the first President to remove his political opponents from office, and put his own party friends in the places thus made vacant. The nation was out of debt and prosperous; and the census of 1830 gave a population of nearly thirteen millions.

New States.—Arkansas (1836) and Michigan (1837) were added to the Union.

Topics.—Tell about—

1. General Andrew Jackson.
2. State rights.
3. The United States Bank.
4. Wild speculation.
5. An anti-slavery paper.
6. The Black Hawk war.
7. The Florida war.
8. Education.
9. Newspapers.
10. American writers.
11. The use of coal.
12. Friction matches.
13. Mowing, reaping, and threshing machines.
14. Removing political opponents.
15. New states.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

VAN BUREN'S ADMINISTRATION—1837-1841.

Martin Van Buren, a Democrat, followed Jackson.

Internal Improvements.—The Whigs were in favor of a United States bank, and they wished the United States to build harbors, roads, and canals, and make other public improvements. The Democrats were opposed to a United States bank, and thought each state should make its own improvements. The Whigs would give more power to the general government; while many Democrats favored "State Rights."

MARTIN VAN BUREN.

Three Great Leaders.—Daniel Webster, of Massachusetts, and Henry Clay, of Kentucky, probably the greatest orators this country has had, were the Whig leaders. John

C. Calhoun, of South Carolina, a skillful debater, was the leader of the Democrats. Calhoun thought a state could nullify or set aside a law of Congress, and he has been called the "Great Nullifier." In this respect he was opposed to Jackson and many other Democrats.

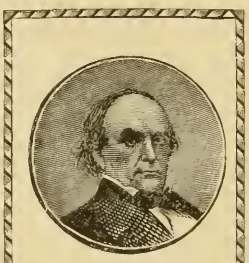
Panic of 1837.— During Jackson's adminstration people had been borrowing a great deal of money of the banks, investing in Western town lots and selling out on credit, purchasing immense quantities of foreign goods for sale, and everybody seemed to be getting rich. But Van Buren was hardly seated before a crash came (1837).

Daniel Webster was born at Salisbury, New Hampshire, January 18, 1782; died at Marshfield, Massachusetts, October 24, 1852. He had to work his own way in the world, and paid a portion of his expenses at Dartmouth College by teaching school, an employment which he followed for some time after he completed his course. He studied law, and rose to the highest rank in his profession. In 1813 he was elected to Congress, where he soon stood at the very front in debate. His speech in the Senate in reply to Hayne, of South Carolina, setting forth the powers of the National Government in a masterly manner, gave him a world-wide fame as an orator and statesman. Mr. Webster held the position of Secretary of State under William Henry Harrison, and also under Fillmore. He opposed the annexation of Texas, but favored the compromise measures of 1850. (*See Omnibus Bill, page 168.*) He delivered many remarkable orations, one of which was at the laying of the corner-stone of Bunker Hill monument. (*See page 170.*) His farm at Marshfield gave him great delight, and he was fond of the rod and gun.

Men were unable to pay for the lots they had bought, banks and merchants could not collect their debts, and a panic spread over all the states. Banks suspended, merchants failed, factories stopped, thousands were out of work, states became bankrupt, and the government itself was much embarrassed. Great numbers of people were ruined, and it was a long time before prosperity returned.

The Mob Spirit.— The agitation of the slavery question continued, and many anti-slavery meetings in the North were dispersed by mobs. Mr. Garrison, who had attempted

to address the Female Anti-Slavery Society in Boston, was led through the streets with a rope around his neck; a public hall in Philadelphia where a woman's anti-slavery meeting had met was burned; and even in New England schools for colored children were broken up. The editor of an anti-slavery paper at Alton, Illinois, Reverend Elijah P. Lovejoy, was killed by a mob.



DANIEL WEBSTER.

The furniture in the dwelling of Lewis Tappan, of New York, was taken into the streets and burned because he had spoken against slavery at a meeting on the 4th of July. Churches held by colored congregations in New York were shattered; and forty-four dwellings in Philadelphia occupied by harmless and helpless colored families were destroyed or seriously damaged.*

Right of Petition Denied.—For the purpose of arresting agitation on the subject of slavery and restoring tranquillity to the public mind, Congress passed the following resolution, which remained in force for several years:

"Resolved, That all petitions, memorials, and papers touching the abolition of slavery, or the buying, selling, or transferring of slaves in any state, district, or territory of the United States be laid upon the table without being debated, printed, read, or referred; and no further action whatever shall be had thereon." Passed December 21, 1837.

Topics.—Tell about—

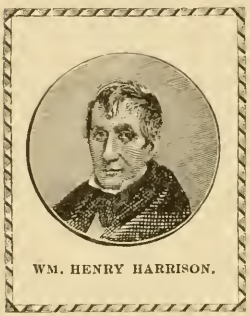
1. Internal improvements.
2. Three great leaders.
3. Panic of 1837.
4. The mob spirit.
5. The right of petition denied.

*See Greeley's American Conflict.

Chapter XXXV.

HARRISON AND TYLER'S ADMINISTRATION—1841-1845.

The Log-Cabin Campaign.—William Henry Harrison, of Ohio, was the Whig candidate for President. As he had been a pioneer in what was then the "far West," he was represented as living in a log-cabin with the "latch string hung out;" and log-cabins on wheels, with coon-skins stretched on the sides of the cabins, and cider barrels near at hand, formed a part of every great Whig procession during the campaign. Songs about "Tippecanoe and Tyler, too," were sung at the meetings, and the people were wide-awake. General Harrison was elected by a large majority, was inaugurated on the 4th of March, and died just a month later, leaving his place to Vice-President John Tyler.



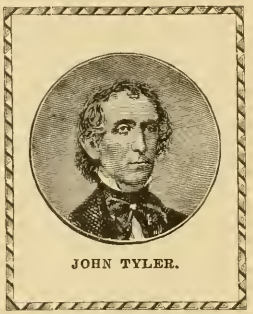
WM. HENRY HARRISON.

The Inauguration.—A piercing northeast wind blew and the sun was darkened by clouds on the day of Harrison's inauguration. His friends had presented a carriage for the occasion, which he declined, and rode to the Capitol on horseback, bareheaded, and without an overcoat, the crowds cheering themselves hoarse as his spirited white horse pranced along, followed by mechanics, representing their trades, and Tippecanoe clubs, with their log-cabins, coons, and cider-barrels.

The throngs at the Capitol nearly perished from the icy blasts, while the President, standing on the balcony, delivered his inaugural without hat, overcoat, or gloves. At the conclusion of his address he waved away the carriage and rode upon the charger, unprotected from the cold. These, and other indiscretions, brought on pneumonia.

Death in the White House.—"On the 4th of April, there was death in the White House, where never before had trod his skeleton foot. The hero of Tippecanoe from the round at the top, had stepped to the sky. The hosts that had come before to witness his triumph, came again to behold the funeral pomp."—*From Lady Washington to Mrs. Cleveland, by Lydia L. Gordon.*

Annexation of Texas.—The chief event of Tyler's administration was the annexation of Texas. Texas had been a province of Mexico, but the people had revolted, and, after a hard struggle, had gained their independence, and set up a government of their own. A number of large colonies from the Southern States had gone to Texas, taking their slaves along; and, though Mexico had before abolished slavery, it was established in the new republic.



JOHN TYLER.

The Southern States had a strong desire to annex Texas, because it would open up an immense territory to slavery. John C. Calhoun, then the great pro-slavery leader, said the object of the measure was "to uphold the interests of slavery, extend its influence, and secure its permanent duration."

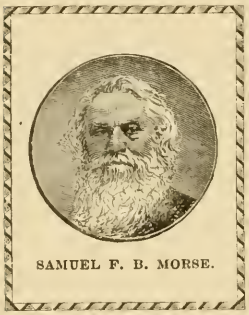
Feeling in the Free States.—The people of the free states did not wish to see slavery extended and strengthened, and many felt sure that annexation would lead to war with the Republic of Mexico, which had not yet fully given up its hope of reconquering Texas. But, in spite of all opposition, it was admitted to the Union (1845), Tyler approving the bill three days before he went out of office.

Political Parties.—In the presidential election of 1844, James K. Polk, of Tennessee, was the candidate of the Democrats, Henry Clay of the Whigs, and James G. Birney of the Liberty Party. Mr. Polk was favorable to the annexation of Texas, and was elected.

The Liberty Party was formed (1840) to bring about the abolition of slavery throughout the land. It was opposed to the annexation of Texas, and to all schemes for the extension of slavery; and was joined by many men of wealth, talents, and personal worth. Mr. Birney, its candidate for president, had been a slaveholder in Kentucky, but had given his slaves their freedom and moved to Michigan. The party polled quite a large number of votes.

The Telegraph.—The magnetic telegraph came into use in 1844. The first line extended from Washington to Baltimore, a distance of forty miles. The first message was, "What hath God wrought!" Other telegraphs had been in use, but they were only long lines of signal posts set some distance apart, on which messages were sent by hoisting letters or signals.

Prof. Samuel F. B. Morse, the inventor of the magnetic telegraph, had been at work on it for a number of years. Having no means, he went to Washington, hoping to secure a grant from Congress (1838). Failing in this, he crossed the ocean to seek aid in Europe, but received no encouragement there. Returning home disappointed, he renewed his efforts in Washington, spending winter after winter, using all his influence—all his powers of persuasion.



SAMUEL F. B. MORSE.

"March the third, 1843, the last day of the session, was come. He attended all day the House of Representatives, faintly hoping that something might be done for him before the final adjournment; but as the evening wore away, the pressure and confusion increased, and at length hope died within him and he left the Capitol. He walked sadly home and went to bed. Imagine the rapture with which he heard on the following morning that Congress, late in the night, had voted him thirty thousand dollars for constructing his experimental line! Eleven years and a half had passed since he had made his invention on board the ship. Perhaps, on that morning, he thought it worth while to strive and suffer so long a period, to enjoy the thrill and ecstacy he then experienced." —*Parton's Triumphs of Enterprise.*

New State.—Florida was admitted to the Union just at the close of Tyler's administration (1845).

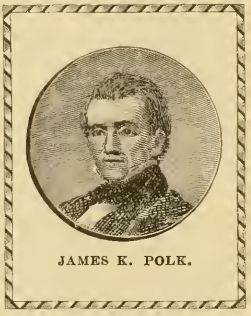
Topics.—Tell what you can of—

1. The log-cabin campaign.
2. Inauguration of Harrison.
3. Death in the White House.
4. Annexation of Texas.
5. The feeling in the free states.
6. Political parties.
7. The Liberty Party.
8. The magnetic telegraph.
9. New state.

Chapter XXXVI.

POLK'S ADMINISTRATION — 1845-1849.

The Boundary Question.— The United States had claimed the region drained by the Columbia River because an American sea captain discovered the mouth of that stream, and the country had been partially explored by Lewis and Clarke's expedition, sent out by the government in the time of Jefferson. (*See map, page 150.*)



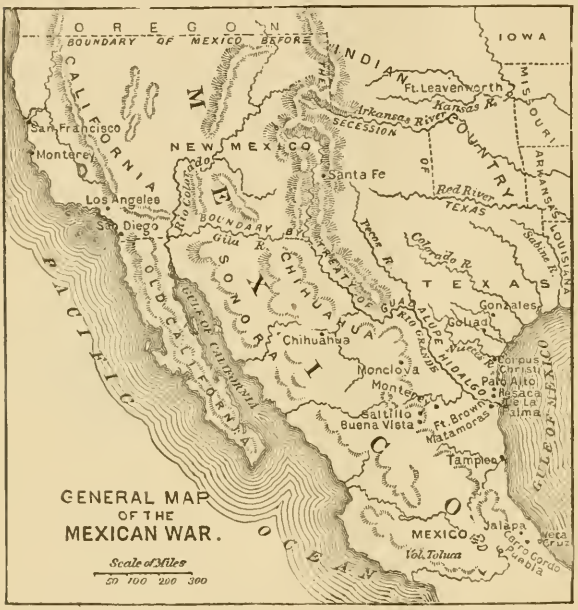
JAMES K. POLK.

Although a few Americans had settled there, the region was really subject to the British fur companies, and no boundary line had been agreed on. A treaty was made (1846) which fixed the northern boundary of the United States at 49° north latitude, and, though the government had claimed as far north as 54° 40′, there was great satisfaction at the peaceable settlement of a question which gave us over three hundred thousand square miles of territory.

War with Mexico.— As many had feared, the United States soon found itself in trouble with Mexico. Texas claimed the Rio Grande as its western boundary, while Mexico fixed it at the river Nueces (*nooa′ sees*), a hundred miles farther north. The government took sides with Texas, and sent General Taylor with a small army to occupy the disputed territory. Mexico sent a larger force, and soon there were skirmishes, and then the sharp battles of Palo Alto (*pah′ lo ahl′ to*) and Resaca de la Palma (*ra sah′ kah*

da lah pahl' mah) were fought, in which the Americans were successful (May 8-9, 1846).

Congress now declared that war existed between the two countries by act of Mexico; voted ten million dollars to carry it on; and resolved to call for fifty thousand volunteers. The call met with a quick response.



One division of the army was placed in command of General Taylor, another under General Scott, and a third in command of General Stephen W. Kearney (*kar ne*).

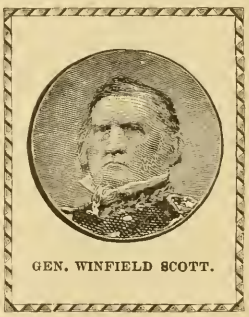
Taylor's Campaign.—General Taylor now crossed the Rio Grande, and took possession of Matamoras. Receiving re-enforcements, he marched to the strongly fortified city of Monterey (*mon ta ray'*), which was garrisoned by ten thousand men. After a desperate struggle, the Mexicans were driven from their works, and the city was forced to capitulate (September 24, 1846).

General Santa Anna (*sahn' tah ah' nah*), the best soldier of the Republic, then took command of the Mexican forces, numbering some twenty thousand men. General Taylor,

whose force was less than five thousand, took a strong position at Buena Vista (*bwa' nah vees' tah*), where he was attacked by Santa Anna, who was confident of an easy victory. But, after a hard struggle, lasting from morning till night, the Mexicans were driven from the field in great confusion (February 23, 1847).

New Mexico and California Taken.—General Kearney marched into New Mexico, and took possession of that state; and General Fremont with a mere handful of men, aided by Commodore Stockton with a naval force, brought California under the United States flag (1847).

Scott's Campaign.—Though the Mexicans had lost every battle, they were not disposed to make peace, and General Scott was sent to carry war into the heart of the country. With a land force of twelve thousand men, and a fleet under Commodore Matthew C. Perry, the city of Vera Cruz (*va' rah croos'*), defended by the strong fortress of San Juan d'Ulloa (*sahn hoo ahn' da ool yo' ah*) was bombarded and forced to surrender (March 27, 1847).



GEN. WINFIELD SCOTT.

The army then began its march to the interior, gaining daring victories at Cerro Gordo (*ser' ro gor' do*), Churubusco (*choo roo boos' ko*), and at other places, until, at last, the City of Mexico, with its one hundred and forty thousand inhabitants, was compelled to yield to Scott's force, then numbering less than six thousand men (September 14, 1847).

Results of the War.—This brought the war to a close, and a treaty of peace was signed, by which California and New Mexico were ceded to the United States, and the Rio Grande was made the boundary between the two countries

(February 2, 1848). The United States agreed to pay fifteen million dollars for the territory acquired, and assume debts due American citizens from Mexico to the amount of three million dollars.

The Gold Excitement.—People knew but little about the value of California, but, during the very year of the treaty, there came rumors of the discovery of gold. A laborer at work on a mill-race belonging to Captain Sutter, found the glittering dust in the sand. In the East, men went wild over the discovery. Thousands set out for the gold field with ox-teams and covered wagons, and long trains were soon crossing the Western plains. Other thousands went by sea, crossing the Isthmus, and California was soon swarming with gold-seekers, and others who came to make fortunes in different ways. In two years San Francisco grew from a village to a city of thirty-five thousand, and in three years California was ready to come into the Union.

The Wilmot Proviso.—The discussion in regard to slavery went on, the people became anxious to know whether the territory acquired of Mexico was to be slave or free; and David Wilmot, of Pennsylvania, introduced into Congress a measure, known as the Wilmot Proviso, prohibiting slavery in all the territory acquired of Mexico. Though the proviso was finally defeated, it led to a long discussion, and to the organization of the Free Soil party.

The Free Soil Party, as its name indicates, was formed for the purpose of preventing the extension of slavery into the territories. It was made up of the Liberty party, and many men who left both the other parties. The first Free Soil party convention was held at Buffalo, New York (August 9, 1848). It was composed of delegates from all the free, and several of the slave states, and its candidate, Martin Van Buren, received nearly three hundred thousand votes.

Woman's Rights.—The first woman's rights convention was held at Seneca Falls, New York, on the 19th and 20th of July, 1848. The chief managers were Lucretia Mott, Elizabeth Cady Stanton, Mary Ann McClintock, Jane Hunt, and Martha C. Wright. A "Declaration of Rights" was framed, based on the principle that, "Governments derive their just powers from the consent of the governed." It was argued that women should have a voice in making the laws under which they live; that they should not be taxed without representation; that they should be allowed to control their own earnings; that all schools and colleges should be open to them; that they should be permitted to enter any profession, to follow any honorable calling for which nature has fitted them—each to judge for herself.

The journals all over the land sought to make the movement ridiculous, but the battle has been kept up from that day to this, the cause seeming to gain

strength every year. Women are now admitted to most of the higher institutions of learning on equal terms with men; they are preaching the gospel, practicing law and medicine, and earning their daily bread in hundreds of ways not open to them forty years ago. Besides this, many oppressive laws have been repealed, and in several of the states and territories the right of suffrage has been partially extended to them.

Inventions.—One of the most important of the many inventions of that period was the sewing machine, for which a patent was issued to Elias Howe, of Massachusetts (1846). A year later, R. M. Hoe, of New York, brought out his cylinder printing-press which made it possible to print enormous editions of newspapers. As now improved, it will print seventy thousand copies of a four-page paper in an hour, folding them besides.

New States.—Three states were admitted to the Union during Polk's administration. They were Texas (1845), Iowa (1846), and Wisconsin (1848).

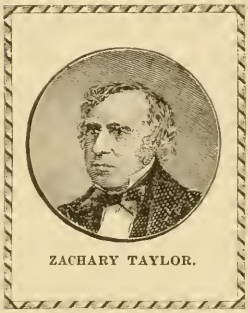
Topics.—Tell about—

1. The boundary question.
2. War with Mexico.
3. Taylor's campaign.
4. New Mexico and California.
5. Scott's campaign.
6. Results of the war.
7. The gold excitement.
8. The Wilmot Proviso.
9. The Free Soil party.
10. Woman's rights.
11. Two inventions.
12. New states.

Chapter XXXVII.

TAYLOR AND FILLMORE'S ADMINISTRATION—1849-1853.

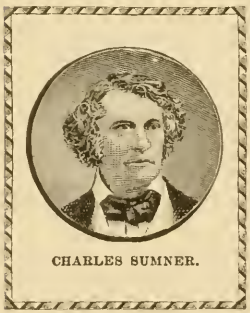
Death of Taylor.—In the campaign of 1848, Martin Van Buren was nominated by the Free Soil party; Lewis Cass by the Democrats, and Zachary Taylor by the Whigs. Taylor was elected, but lived only a year after his inauguration, and Vice-President Fillmore became President for the rest of the term.



ZACHARY TAYLOR.

MILLARD FILLMORE.

The Compromises of 1850.—To settle the question of slavery, the discussion of which had become very bitter, in Congress and out, Henry Clay, who was then a member of Congress, introduced what were called compromise measures. The people of the North were to be quieted by the admission of California as a free state, and by the abolition of the slave trade in the District of Columbia. The people of the South were to have a "Fugitive Slave Law," allowing slaveholders to recapture their slaves anywhere in the free states, and take



CHARLES SUMNER.

HARRIET BEECHER STOWE.

Charles Sumner was born in Boston, June 6, 1811; died March 11, 1874. He was graduated at Harvard College in 1830; and soon became editor of the American Jurist, a law magazine of high standing. He also wrote and published many legal volumes of great excellence; and delivered many public addresses which gave him a wide fame as an orator. He took strong grounds in favor of settling all difficulties between nations by arbitration instead of the sword. His first public opposition to slavery was in 1845, when he opposed the annexation of Texas because he believed it was intended to extend the boundaries of that system of labor. From that time until his death, Sumner always advocated the emancipation of the slaves. He became United States Senator in 1851, and retained his seat in that body until his death.

Sumner was the leader of all anti-slavery movements in the Senate, taking the ground that, "Freedom is national, slavery is sectional." His great speech upon "The crime against Kansas" required two days for its delivery. Some passages in it greatly offended members of Congress from the South, and one of them, Preston S. Brooks, of South Carolina, approached Mr. Sumner while writing at his desk in the Senate chamber, and dealt him such a blow on the head with a cane, that he fell insensible upon the floor. Mr. Sumner suffered much from this blow, and did not fully recover from it for several years, if at all. Brooks' constituents presented him with a gold-headed cane, and re-elected him to Congress. Mr. Sumner sustained the national policy during the war, and in 1865 pronounced a eulogy on Abraham Lincoln.

them back to bondage without a trial by jury. These measures were supported by Daniel Webster and other leading Northern statesmen, and were passed by Congress.

The Fugitive Slave Law.—Great excitement followed, and the Fugitive Slave Law was denounced by Charles Sumner, Horace Mann, Wendell Phillips, and many other prominent men of the North; and in several of the states acts were passed to prevent the enforcement of the law, or, at least, to secure a jury trial for all persons claimed as slaves.

Fugitives Rescued.—In some cases the people rescued fugitive slaves from the hands of the officers. This was done in Syracuse, New York, and in Boston. In Ohio, Margaret Garner, a fugitive, killed her two children to save them from slavery.

Uncle Tom's Cabin.—About this time Harriet Beecher Stowe published a book, Uncle Tom's Cabin, which gave a vivid picture of slave life in the South. It was widely read by young and old, and touched the hearts of all, causing deep sympathy for the slave. No book on the subject of slavery has ever had so great an influence.

The Underground Railroad.—For many years the slaves of the South fled to the Northern States or to Canada for freedom. They left their masters, and sometimes

traveled hundreds of miles, hiding in swamps and other out-of-the-way places by day, and journeying by night, until the border of a free state was reached. They were then secreted in the garret or cellar of some friend, black or white, and at night were carried in a wagon ten or twenty miles to another friend who would hide the wayfarers, and carry them on the next night. In this way Canada, or some other place of safety, was reached at last. It was said that these fugitives traveled on the "Underground Railroad." There were many such lines stretching across the country, and some of the most noted agents or conductors placed thousands of black men and women aboard the secret trains.

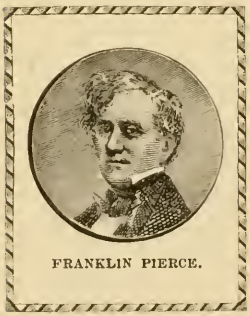
Topics.—Tell about—

1. Death of Taylor.
2. The compromises of 1850.
3. The Fugitive Slave Law.
4. Uncle Tom's Cabin.
5. The Underground Railroad.

Chapter XXXVIII.

PIERCE'S ADMINISTRATION—1853-1857.

The Free Soil party weakened the Whig party by drawing voters from its ranks, and Franklin Pierce, of New Hampshire, a Democrat, became the next President.



FRANKLIN PIERCE.

The Kansas-Nebraska Bill.—The compromise measures had failed to settle the slavery question, and Stephen A. Douglas, of Illinois, brought a bill before Congress to organize the territories of Kansas and Nebraska. These territories lay north of the Missouri Compromise line of 1820, and so slavery was to be forever excluded from them. Mr. Douglas' bill set aside this agreement, and allowed the settlers to decide whether the territories should come in as free, or as slave states. This plan went by the name of "Squatter Sovereignty."

The measure was stoutly resisted on the floor of Congress and by the opponents of slavery in the North, but it became a law, and people from all parts of the country rushed to Kansas, those from the North hoping to make it a free state, those from the South determined to make it a slave state.

Civil War in Kansas.—The settlers from the North generally took their families, expecting to make permanent homes; but many from the slave states went simply to aid in establishing slavery. "Border Ruffians," as they were called, swept over from Missouri to vote at elections, and to commit depredations on free-state settlers, who were obliged to protect their families and defend their rights with powder and ball.

Two separate governments were formed by settlers, and a desperate struggle followed, in which the homes of many settlers were destroyed and many lives were lost.

John Brown.—Among the free-state leaders, Captain John Brown, of Ossawattomie, took a most active and daring part. With sixteen men he defended himself against several hundred marauders from Missouri, killing and wounding a large number, with a loss of but two of his own little force.

Topics.—Tell about—

1. The Kansas-Nebraska bill.
2. Civil war in Kansas.
3. John Brown.

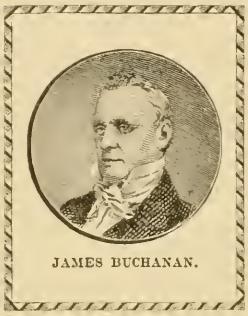
Chapter XXXIX.

BUCHANAN'S ADMINISTRATION—1857-1861.

Political Parties.—The Free Soil party had taken a new name—Republican. Most of the Southern Whigs had joined the Democrats, while the Northern Whigs had gone to the Republicans, and there was no longer a Whig party. The Republicans nominated John C. Fremont, the Pathfinder; the Democrats, James Buchanan, and a new party, called the Native American, or "Know-Nothing" party,

put up Millard Fillmore. The Democrats were successful in the election.

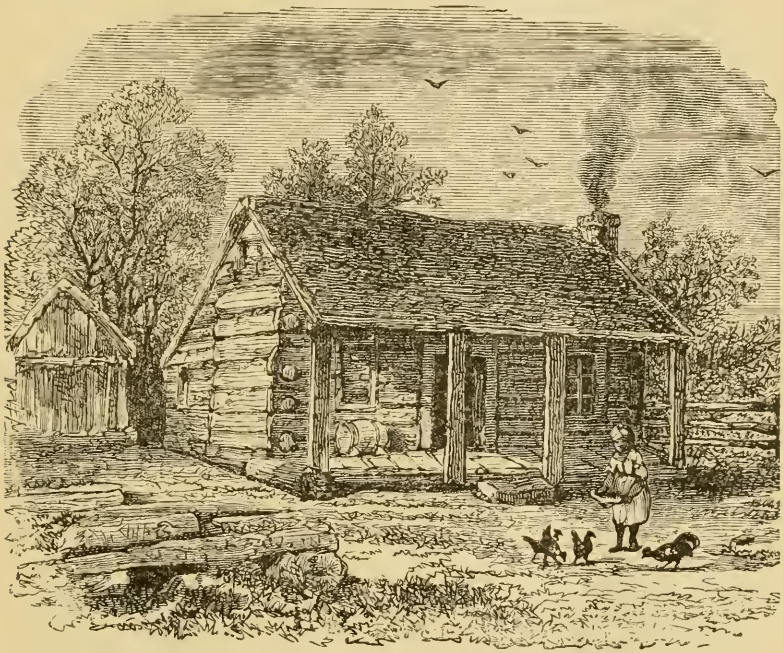
The Dred Scott Decision.—The very year that Buchanan took his seat, Judge Taney (*taw ny*), of the Supreme Court, gave what was called the Dred Scott decision. Dred Scott, a slave who was taken by his master to reside at Fort Snelling, Minnesota, sued for his freedom, on the ground that his master had taken him to free territory. In substance, the court decided that Africans whose parents had been slaves had no rights under the Constitution, and that a master could take his slaves, the same as his horses or cattle, into a free state without losing his right to hold them. It also decided that Congress had no power to forbid slavery in the territories. The Republicans saw that this decision made slavery national, instead of local, and the excitement increased.



JAMES BUCHANAN.

John Brown's Raid.—John Brown, familiarly known as "Ossawattomie Brown," a descendant of a Puritan family, who was brought up to hate slavery, wished to help the slaves to gain their freedom. With twenty associates he seized the United States Arsenal, at Harper's Ferry, in the mountains of Virginia, in order to secure arms for the slaves, who he thought would rally at his call (October 16, 1859). The news of this raid was telegraphed to all parts of the Union, and great excitement prevailed. Troops were sent against Brown's handful of men, thirteen of whom were killed, two escaped, and the rest, including Brown, were tried for treason. Brown was condemned to death, and hanged (December 2, 1859), his last act being to kiss a little slave child when on his way to the gallows.

By the census of 1860, the population of the United States was 31,443,321, an increase of over 8,000,000 in ten years. It had outstripped Great Britain and Ireland in the number of its inhabitants; its railroads had a length of 31,000 miles; and in merchant vessels it ranked next to Great Britain. No other country on the globe approached it in agriculture. The South had produced 5,000,000 bales of cotton of 400 pounds each in a single year. Yet this was the country of which an explorer said, 260 years before, "Nothing but sassafras and a few half-naked Indians can be found."



EARLY HOME OF ABRAHAM LINCOLN, GENTRYVILLE, INDIANA.

The Great Question.—Slavery was the great question in the next presidential campaign. It caused a division of the Democratic party, and John C. Breckenridge was nominated by the Southern Democrats, who claimed that neither the people nor Congress had any right to prohibit slavery in the territories. The Northern Democrats, who held that the inhabitants of a territory ought to decide

whether it should come in as a free, or as a slave state, chose Stephen A. Douglas, the author of the Kansas-Nebraska bill, as their leader. The Republicans, who were determined to prevent the spread of slavery, made Abraham Lincoln their standard bearer; and the small Native American party voted for John Bell. Mr. Lincoln carried every Northern state, save New Jersey, and was elected.

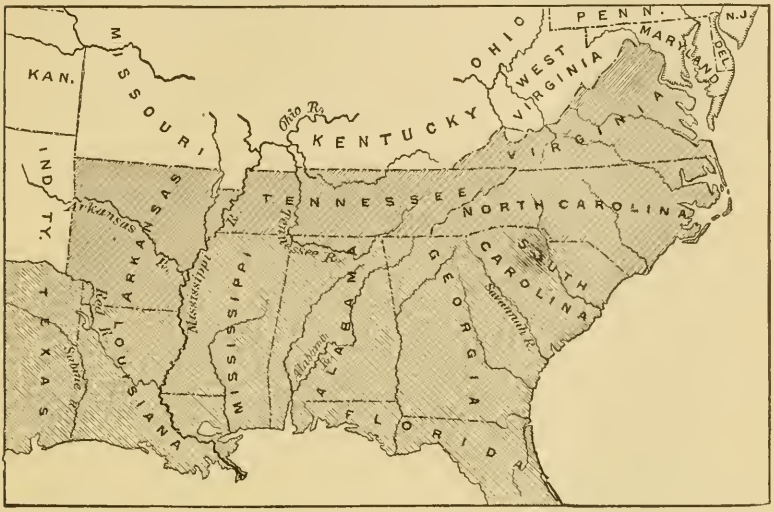
Secession of Southern States.—While Mr. Lincoln did not propose to interfere with slavery where it already existed, many people of the South looked upon his election as dangerous to the interests of slavery, and a movement was made to dissolve the Union. The belief that any state could leave the Union when it chose to do so, had long been held at the South. This was in accordance with what is known as State Rights, or State Sovereignty, so strongly advocated by Calhoun.

Abraham Lincoln was born in a log-cabin in Hardin County, Kentucky, February 12, 1809. His father was very poor, a common laborer, unable to read or write. His mother died when he was ten years old, but she had taught him to read and write, and had managed to give him six months of schooling,—all that he ever had. "All that I am, or hope to be, I owe to my angel mother; blessings on her memory," were the words of her dutiful son, uttered when he was President. Lincoln went with his parents to Indiana, where the family lived for twelve years, and thence to Illinois. He worked as a farm-hand, a wood-chopper, a rail-splitter, a flat-boatman at "ten dollars a month and found."

At twenty-one, Lincoln left his father's house, and went forth to seek his fortune in the world. He worked as a hired laborer, glad of any honest employment, but he was determined to have an education, and spent half the night and every spare moment of the day in reading such useful books as could be found in those times in a new, thinly settled country. At twenty-five he had mastered English grammar, and was a ready speaker; and by hard work afterwards fitted himself for the practice of law. He was elected to the legislature of Illinois, and also to the lower house of Congress, and was nominated by the Republicans for the United States Senate against Stephen A. Douglas, who barely escaped defeat in that Democratic state. During the presidential campaign his enemies spoke of him as a rail-splitter, and the people of the South were told that he was a mulatto. More will be learned of this remarkable man in the lessons that follow.

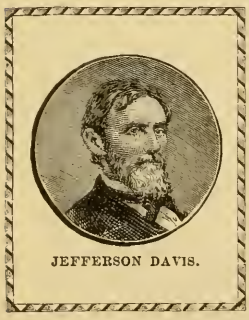
In December (1860), South Carolina passed an ordinance

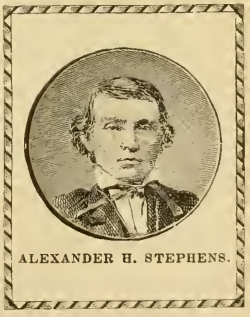
of secession, declaring herself out of the Union; and Alabama, Georgia, Florida, Louisiana, Mississippi, and Texas



soon followed. They took the forts, navy yards, arsenals, and other property of the United States within their borders.

Confederate States of America.—The next move of these seven states was to form a government under the name, "Confederate States of America." A constitution was adopted, much like that of the United States, save that it declared slavery right and permanent. Jefferson Davis was chosen President, Alexander H. Stephens, Vice-President, and the seat of government was established at Montgomery, Alabama.


JEFFERSON DAVIS.


ALEXANDER H. STEPHENS.

What Buchanan Thought.—President Buchanan did not think it right for states to leave the Union, but he thought he had no authority to compel them to stay in, and the government did nothing to preserve the Union.

New States.—Minnesota (1858), Oregon (1859), and Kansas (1861) became members of the Union.

THE STEPS OF DOOM.

We prayed and hoped; but still, with awe,
The coming of the sword we saw;
We heard the nearing steps of doom,
We saw the shade of things to come.
In grief, which they alone can feel
Who from a mother's wrong appeal,
With blended lines of fear and hope
We cast our country's horoscope.
For still within her house of life,
We marked the lurid sign of strife,
And, poisoning and embittering all,
We saw the star of worm-wood fall. —*Whittier.*

Topics.—Tell about—

1. Political parties.
2. The Dred Scott decision.
3. John Brown's raid.
4. The great question.
5. Secession of Southern States.
6. Confederate States of America.
7. What Buchanan thought.
8. New states.

TOPICS FOR REVIEW.

Historic Names.—Tell what you can of the persons whose names are given below:

Washington, 130-135, 141-145.
Jefferson, 141,'48-'51,'73
Hamilton, 141-2.
Henry Knox, 141.
Edwin Randolph, 141.
John Jay, 141.
Samuel Adams, 143.
John Adams, 131, 146-7,
Eli Whitney, 145.
Lieut. Decatur, 149, 156.
Lewis and Clarke, 149.
Robert Fulton, 152-3.
James Madison, 153,54.
Gen. Harrison, 154,157,
Tecumseh, 154, 157.[186
General Hull, 155.
Isaac Hull, 155.
Oliver H. Perry, 157.
Jackson, 158, 174-182.
Gen. Scott, 158, 191.
Macdonough, 158.
Francis S. Key, 159.
F. Cabot Lowell, 161.
Paul Moody, 161.
Calhoun, 162,'75'6,'84'7
James Monroe, 166-169.
J. Q. Adams, 166, 171,'4.
Clay, 168-9, 187, 194.
La Fayette, 170.
De Witt Clinton, 172.
Garrison, 178-'79, 184.
Wendell Phillips, 179, 195
Fred'ck Douglass, 178-'9.
Whittier, 179.
Irving, 181.
Bryant, 181.
Poe, 181.
Longfellow, 181.
Bancroft, 181.
Emerson, 181.
Holmes, 156, 181.
Hawthorne, 181.
Prescott, 181.
VanBuren, 183.
Elijah P. Lovejoy, 185.
Lewis Tappan, 185.
John Tyler, 186.
James G. Birney, 187.
Samuel F. B. Morse, 188.
Jas. K. Polk, 187, 189,
Z. Taylor, 189-'90,'94.
Santa Anna, 190.
Gen. Kearney, 190-191.
J. C. Fremont, 191, 197.
David Wilmot, 192.
Elias Howe, 193.
E. M. Hoe, 193.
Millard Fillmore, 194.
Daniel Webster, 184, 195.
Charles Sumner, 195.
Harriet B. Stowe, 195.
Franklin Pierce, 196.
S. A. Douglas, 196, 200.
John Brown, 197, 198.
Jas. Buchanan, 197, 200.
Judge Taney, 198.
John C. Breckenridge, 199
John Bell, 200.
Abraham Lincoln, 200.
Jefferson Davis, 201.
Alex. H. Stephens, 201.

Historic Places.—Locate the places named, and tell what you can of the events with which they were connected:

Federal Hall, 131 '2.
Tippecanoe, 154.
Detroit, 155.
Lake Erie, 157.
Thames River, 157.
Lundy's Lane, 158.
Plattsburgh, 158.
Washington City, 159.
Baltimore, 159.
New Orleans, 160, 165.
Ghent, 160.
Lowell, 161.
Monterey, 190.
Buena Vista, 191.
Vera Cruz, 191.
Cerro Gordo, 191.
Churubusco, 191.
Mexico, 191.
Harper's Ferry, 198.

General Topics.—Tell what you can of the following:

CHAPTER XXIV.—Articles of Confederation—the Constitution. XXV.—The new Republic and its people. XXVI.—Washington's administration. XXVII.—John Adam's administration. XXVIII.—Jefferson's administration. XXIX.—Madison's administration. XXX.—Settling the great valley. XXXI.—Monroe's administration. XXXII.—J. Q. Adams' administration. XXXIII.—Jackson's administration. XXXIV.—Van Buren's administration. XXXV.—Harrison and Tyler's administration. XXXVI. Polk's administration. XXXVII. Taylor and Fillmore's administration. XXXVIII.—Pierce's administration. XXXIX.—Buchanan's administration.

Your friend &c. ever

A. Lincoln

PART FIFTH.

THE WAR FOR THE UNION.

Chapter XL.

LINCOLN'S ADMINISTRATION—1861-1865.

Thou, too, sail on, O Ship of State!
Sail on, O Union, strong and great!
Humanity with all its fears,
With all the hopes of future years,
Is hanging breathless on thy fate!
We know what master laid thy keel,
What workman wrought thy ribs of steel,
Who made each mast, and sail, and rope,
What anvils rang, what hammers beat,
In what a forge and what a heat
Were shaped the anchors of thy hope! —*Longfellow.*

Great Anxiety of the Country.—The country awaited the inauguration of Lincoln with great anxiety. Seven states had already seceded and others were threatening to do so. Forts, arsenals, navy yards, and custom houses had been taken, and nothing was held by the government in the states which had seceded except Fort Pickens near Pensacola, Fort Sumter in Charleston harbor, and the forts at the southern extremity of Florida. President Buchanan had really done nothing to save the Union, and all attempts at compromise had failed. Most people of the North thought that a state could not leave the Union, but there was a difference of opinion as to what should be done. Some would use force to bring the states back, while others thought it best to let them depart in peace.

Lincoln's Inaugural Address.—As a disturbance was feared, Lincoln was inaugurated in presence of a military force commanded by General Scott. The inaugural address was mild but firm. The people were told that the government had no intention of interfering with slavery where it already existed, but they were also made to understand that the laws would be enforced, and the property of the United States recovered and protected.

Mr. Lincoln said, "In your hands, my dissatisfied fellow countrymen, is the momentous issue of civil war. The government will not assail you. You can have no conflict without being yourselves the aggressors. You have no oath in Heaven to destroy the government; while I shall have the most solemn one to 'preserve, protect, and defend it.'" The closing paragraph of the inaugural address is as follows: "I am loath to close. We are not enemies, but friends. We must not be enemies. Though passions may have strained, they must not break our bonds of affection. The mystic chords of memory, stretching from every battle-field and patriot grave, to every living heart and hearth-stone all over this broad land, will yet swell the chorus of the Union, when again touched, as surely they will be, by the better angels of our nature."

Firing on Fort Sumter.—These kind words had no effect on the Southern leaders. While President Buchanan had been doubting and debating, the Confederates had erected batteries and gathered a force at Charleston, under General Beauregard (*bo' re gard*), for the purpose of attacking Fort Sumter. In the gray of the morning of the 12th of April, 1861, the first shot was fired. The fort was garrisoned by seventy men, with Major Robert Anderson in command. For thirty-four hours shot and shell rained upon them from the batteries. The main gates of the fort were destroyed,

the magazine was surrounded by flames, the ammunition was nearly spent, and no food but pork remained, when Major Anderson surrendered.

The Country Roused.—No one can imagine the excitement that prevailed when the people of the North saw in their morning papers that the national flag had been fired upon, and that Fort Sumter had surrendered. There was no longer any hope of peace, and both sides began to prepare for war. The President called for seventy-five thousand volunteers, and three hundred thousand responded.

"From prairie, O ploughman! speed boldly away,
There's seed to be sown in God's furrows to-day;
Row landward, lone fisher; stout woodman, come home;
Let the smith leave his anvil, and weaver his loom;
Let hamlet and city ring loud with the cry:
For God and our country we'll fight till we die!
Here's welcome to wounding and conflict and scars,
And the glory of death for the stripes and the stars!"

Everywhere in the South there was rejoicing over the victory. Virginia, North Carolina, Arkansas, and Tennessee made haste to cast their fortunes with the Confederacy. Virginia seized the navy-yard at Norfolk, and the arsenal at Harper's Ferry, with all their military stores, and Southern volunteers poured in from all directions.

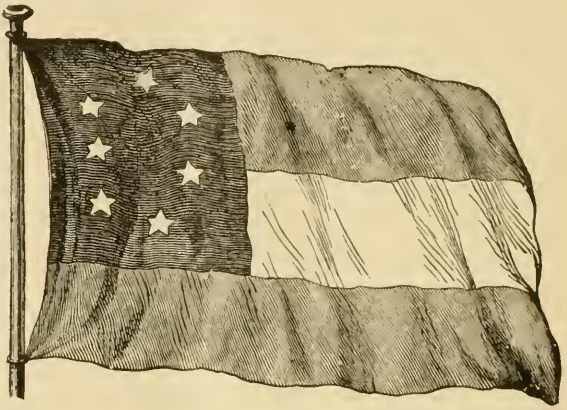
Getting Ready for War.—In the North preparations for war were seen on every hand. The volunteers had to be taught how to use the musket and other weapons, how to march, how to pitch tents, and how to fight battles. Regiments were organized and drilled by the governors of the different states; but the government had to provide the material of war.

Buchanan's Secretary of War, Floyd, had sent thousands of muskets, and also cannon and ammunition, to arsenals in the South. As these supplies were now in the hands of the Confederates, the government had much to do. Arms, uniforms, tents, army wagons, and ambulances had to be made, and horses, provisions, and medicines provided.

The Blockade.—Immediately after President Lincoln's call for volunteers, Jefferson Davis issued a proclamation authorizing privateers to prey upon the commerce of the

United States. President Lincoln also issued a proclamation (April 19, 1861), declaring a blockade of Southern ports, and forbidding vessels to enter or leave them.

Massachusetts Troops in Baltimore.—On the 19th of April, as the Sixth Regiment of Massachusetts troops was passing through Baltimore, on its way to Washington, it was attacked by a mob led by a man with a secession flag on a pole. The man told the troops they should never go through the city—that every one of them would be killed before the next station could be reached. The air was filled with stones and other missiles hurled by the rioters, and several soldiers were knocked down and their muskets taken from them.



CONFEDERATE FLAG.

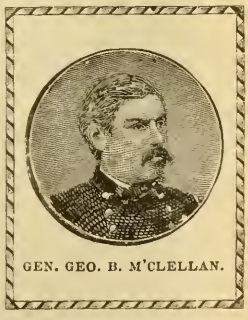
The mob increased to full ten thousand, and there was lusty shouting for "Jeff Davis and the Southern Confederacy." Heavy pieces of iron were thrown upon the soldiers from the windows, and one of them crushed a man to the earth. Now the troops fired upon the mob. "Shouts, stones, musketry, shrieks of women, and the carrying of wounded men into the stores, made an appalling tragedy." At a little past noon the troops entered the cars for Washington. Three of their number had been killed, one mortally wounded, and others seriously injured. This was on the anniversary of the battle of Lexington.

Union Forces Cross the Potomac.—Late in May Union forces were sent across the Potomac for the protection of Washington; they occupied Arlington Heights and Alexandria; by the end of the month not less than fifty thousand men held the line of the Potomac, and guarded the approaches to the capital.

Western Virginia had many loyal people who refused to sanction the ordinance of secession, and Confederate troops were sent to occupy that portion of the state. They were

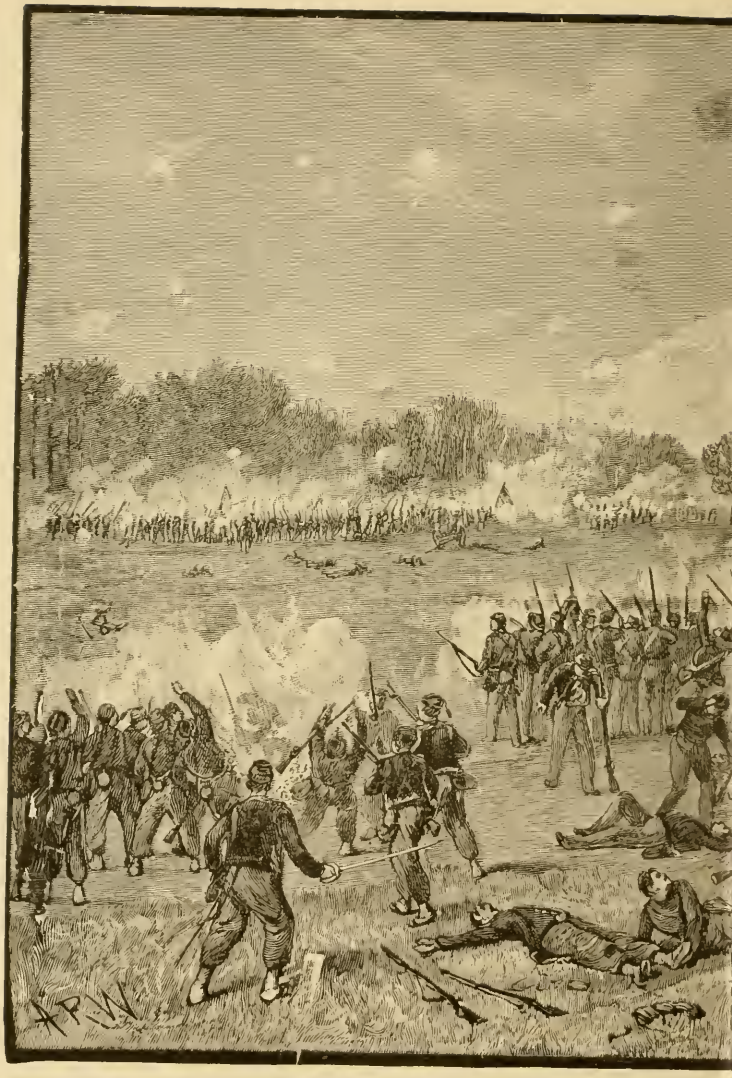
defeated in several battles by small Union forces, in command of Generals McClellan and Rosecrans. West Virginia, thus saved to the Union, afterwards became a separate state. There was also an engagement at Big Bethel, in Eastern Virginia, in which the Union troops were defeated.

Battle of Bull Run.—The first general battle of the war took place at Bull Run (July 21, 1861). General Scott had ordered an advance of the Union forces towards Richmond, which had become the Confederate capital, and General Irvin McDowell, with thirty thousand men, marched out to attack the Confederate army, under General Beauregard, which stretched along a small stream called Bull Run. At first, the advantage was on the Union side, and before noon news of a Union victory was telegraphed all over the North. But both sides fought desperately, and "Now a battery was captured from the enemy, and now a regiment of Union troops went into the battle and was cut to pieces." Later in the day fresh recruits pressed heavily upon the Union forces, and the weary men lost all hope. Panic then seized on one regiment after another, and the Union army was soon flying in wild haste towards Washington, leaving the road strewed with arms, and everything else that could hinder flight.



GEN. GEO. B. M'CLELLAN.

Effect of Bull Run.—It was a sad day when the news of this defeat spread over the North, but courage soon revived. Congress, then in special session, voted to raise five hundred thousand men and to appropriate five hundred million dollars to carry on the war. General Scott, who was becoming old and infirm, retired, and General George B. McClellan was made Com-



THE FIRST B

LE OF BULL RUN.

mander-in-Chief. He spent several months in training the raw volunteers that poured in from all parts of the North, and the people became very impatient of what seemed to them a needless delay.

Ball's Bluff.—Later in the season there was a sharp engagement at Ball's Bluff, a point on the Potomac above Washington, in which a Union force of two thousand men was surprised by a body of Confederates, and badly defeated. Among the killed was Senator Baker, of Oregon, who had become a general. Though the war in Eastern Virginia was discouraging to the North, it roused the people to a stronger effort.

The War in Missouri.—The secessionists of Missouri, encouraged by the governor, made a strong effort to take the state out of the Union. The Union forces were in command of General Nathaniel Lyon, a brave soldier, who soon had the central and northern part of the state under control. But the Confederates rallied in the south, where, in the hard-fought battle of Wilson's Creek, Lyon was defeated and killed (August 10). John C. Fremont was then placed in command; but he was removed before a battle took place, and General Henry W. Halleck placed at the head. No great battle was fought, but the enemy was gradually driven out, and Missouri remained a loyal state.

The War on the Coast.—When the war broke out the government had but four ships, and less than three hundred sailors ready for service; but it soon fitted out a large number of vessels, most of which were used to blockade Southern ports. Two expeditions were sent south; one of them captured the forts at Hatteras Inlet, North Carolina; the other took the forts at Port Royal Entrance, South Carolina. These were very important victories, as they compelled the Confederates to abandon most of the

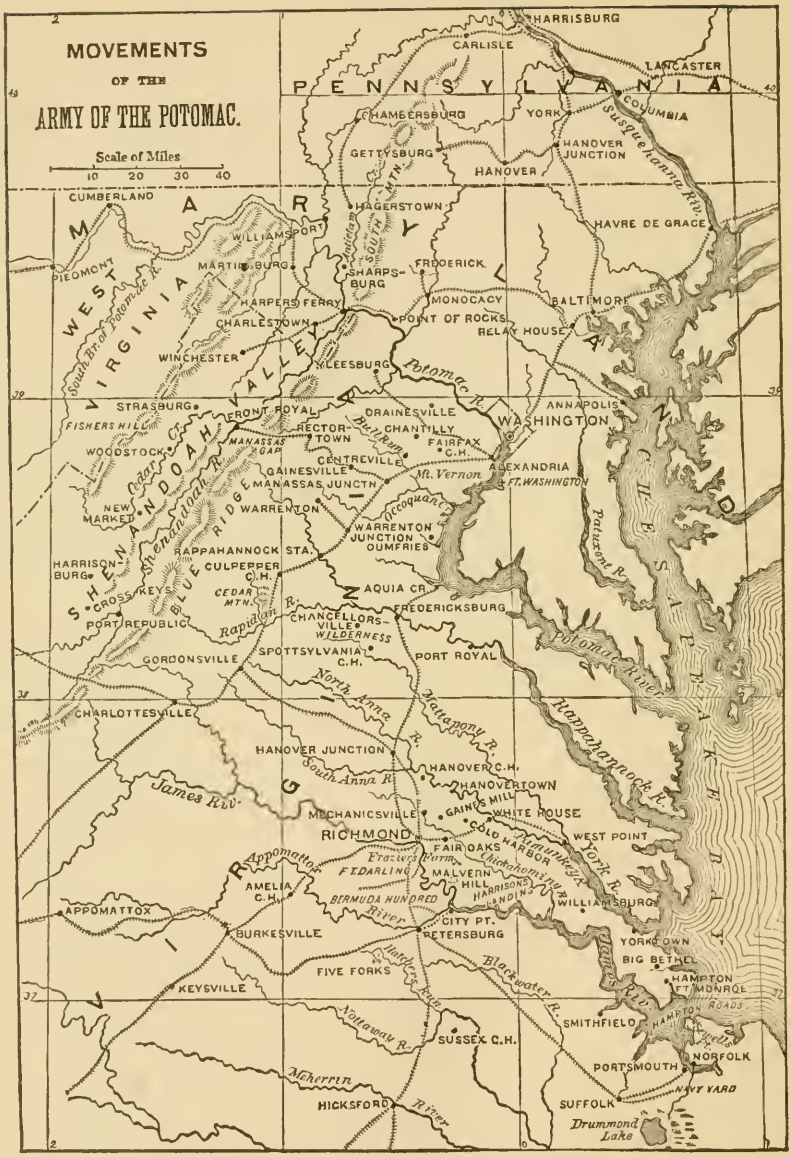
South Atlantic coast, and the ports they had seized were never regained by them.

Effect of the Blockade.—The people of the South had few manufactories, and as they depended upon Europe and the North for all kinds of manufactured goods, also for a market for their cotton, rice, tobacco, and other products, they were sorely pressed by the blockade, and all kinds of cloths, tea, coffee, spices, and many other articles became very scarce and high.

Towards the close of the war the blockade of Southern ports became so close, and the paper money of the South so reduced in value that a writer says: "I bought coffee at forty dollars and tea at thirty dollars a pound on the same day. My dinner at a hotel cost me twenty dollars, and for some wretched tallow candles I paid ten dollars a pound. * * * A cavalry officer, entering a little country store, found there one pair of boots which fitted him. He inquired the price. 'Two hundred dollars,' said the merchant. A five hundred dollar bill was offered, but the merchant, having no smaller bills, could not change it. 'Never mind,' said the cavalier, 'I'll take the boots anyhow. Keep the change; I never let a little matter of three hundred dollars stand in the way of a trade.'"—*Eggleston's Rebel Recollections.*

Conduct of England.—England could get no cotton for her factories, and many of her operatives were out of work. Hence, if a ship-owner could run the blockade, land a cargo of goods in a Southern port, and take a cargo of cotton out, he would make a large sum of money. In this hope of gain foreigners fitted out fast-sailing steamers for blockade running, which entered the ports in the darkness of night, and though large numbers were captured by our watchful sailors, a great many escaped. In this way the South procured clothing, powder, muskets, and other needed things, and was enabled to prolong the war. Of about twelve hundred blockade runners captured during the war, seven hundred had sailed from British ports.

Privateers were also fitted out by the Confederates, to prey upon our commerce, and these found safety in English ports, where some of them were refitted and put in order


MOVEMENTS
OF THE
ARMY OF THE POTOMAC.
Scale of Miles
10 20 30 40
PENNSYLVANIA
MARYLAND
WEST VIRGINIA
VIRGINIA
HARRISBURG
CARLISLE
LANCASTER
COLUMBIA
YORK
HANOVER JUNCTION
HANOVER
GETTYSBURG
CHAMBERSBURG
HAGERSTOWN
HAVRE DE GRACE
CUMBERLAND
WILLIAMSPORT
PIEDMONT
MARTINSBURG
SHARPSBURG
FREDERICK
HARPERS FERRY
MONOCACY
BALTIMORE
CHARLESTOWN
POINT OF ROCKS
RELAY HOUSE
WINCHESTER
LEESBURG
Potomac R.
ANNAPOLIS
STRASBURG
FRONT ROYAL
DRAINESVILLE
WASHINGTON
FISHERS HILL
RECTORTOWN
CHANTILLY
FAIRFAX C.H.
WOODSTOCK
MANASSAS GAP
CENTREVILLE
ALEXANDRIA
GAINESVILLE
MANASSAS JUNCTN
Mt. Vernon
FT. WASHINGTON
NEW MARKET
WARRENTON
WARRENTON JUNCTION
DUMFRIES
RAPPAHANNOCK STA.
HARRISONBURG
CULPEPPER C.H.
CROSS KEYS
CEDAR MTN.
AQUIA CR.
FREDERICKSBURG
PORT REPUBLIC
CHANCELLORSVILLE
WILDERNESS
SPOTTSYLVANIA C.H.
PORT ROYAL
GORDONSVILLE
North Anna R.
Mattapony R.
Rappahannock R.
CHARLOTTESVILLE
HANOVER JUNCTION
HANOVER C.H.
South Anna R.
HANOVERTOWN
James Riv.
GAINES MILL
WHITE HOUSE
MECHANICSVILLE
RICHMOND
COLD HARBOR
WEST POINT
FAIR OAKS
Frazier's Farm
Chickahominy R.
York R.
Appomattox
FT. DARLING
MALVERN HILL
HARRISONS LANDING
AMELIA C.H.
BERMUDA HUNDRED
WILLIAMSBURG
APPOMATTOX
CITY PT.
PETERSBURG
BURKESVILLE
YORKTOWN
BIG BETHEL
FIVE FORKS
Blackwater R.
HAMPTON
FT. MONROE
KEYSVILLE
SMITHFIELD
HAMPTON ROADS
Nottaway R.
SUSSEX C.H.
NORFOLK
PORTSMOUTH
Meherrin
NAVY YARD
HICKSFORD
SUFFOLK
Drummond Lake
Susquehanna Riv.
Potomac River
Patuxent R.
Rapidan R.
Cedar Cr.
Shenandoah R.
Antietam Cr.
South Br. of Potomac R.
Occoquan Cr.
Hatchers Run
Nottaway R.
Meherrin River
Chickahominy R.
Pamunkey R.
Appomattox River
Blackwater R.
Hampton Roads
Sewells Pt.
Chesapeake Bay

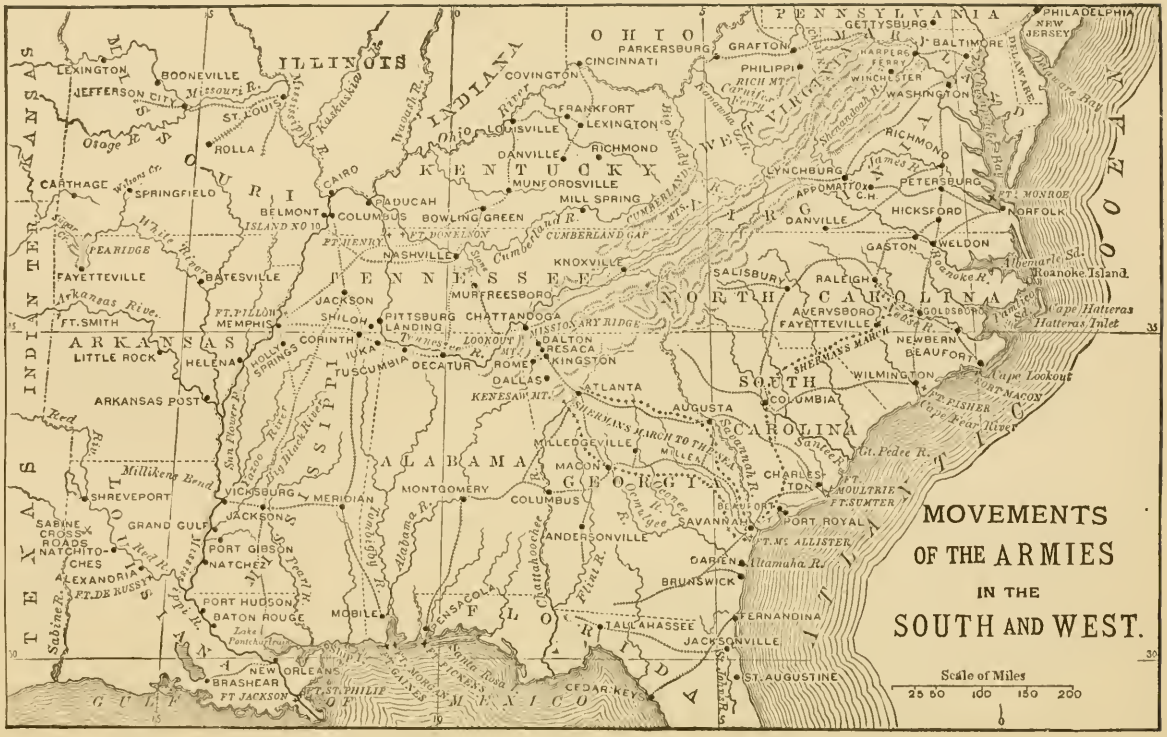
for more effective work. England recognized the seceding states as belligerents; France and Spain followed her example, and the Confederates were sustained throughout the war by the hope of aid from foreign powers.

Capture of Mason and Slidell.—As the Confederacy was very desirous of being recognized by foreign nations, Mr. Mason and Mr. Slidell were sent as commissioners to London and Paris. They ran the blockade to Havana, and there took passage on the English mail steamer Trent. When out of port, Captain Wilkes, of the United States war vessel, San Jacinto, took Mason and Slidell from the steamer and carried them off (November, 1861). Although the right to search neutral vessels had always been claimed by England, this act produced great excitement in that country, and for a time there seemed a probability of war. The United States had always opposed "the right of search," and gave up the commissioners to Great Britain, thus maintaining its own principles.

Plan of the War.—Before the close of the year (1861) a plan had been formed for carrying on the war. Richmond was to be captured; the Southern ports were to be thoroughly blockaded; and the Mississippi was to be opened to the sea, dividing the Confederacy into two parts.

Topics.—Tell about—

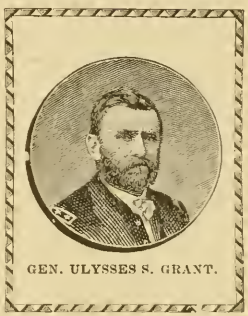
1. Great anxiety of the country.
2. Lincoln's inaugural address.
3. Firing on Fort Sumter.
4. The country roused.
5. Getting ready for war.
6. The blockade.
7. Massachusetts troops in Baltimore.
8. Union forces crossing the Potomac.
9. Western Virginia.
10. Battle of Bull Run.
11. Effect of Bull Run.
12. Ball's Bluff.
13. The war in Missouri.
14. The war on the coast.
15. Effects of the blockade.
16. Conduct of England.
17. Privateers.
18. Capture of Mason and Slidell.
19. Plan of the war.


MOVEMENTS
OF THE ARMIES
IN THE
SOUTH AND WEST.
Scale of Miles
25 50 100 150 200
0
PENNSYLVANIA
OHIO
ILLINOIS
INDIANA
KENTUCKY
TENNESSEE
MISSOURI
ARKANSAS
MISSISSIPPI
ALABAMA
GEORGIA
FLORIDA
SOUTH CAROLINA
NORTH CAROLINA
VIRGINIA
MARYLAND
DELAWARE
NEW JERSEY
INDIAN TERRITORY
TEXAS
LOUISIANA
GULF OF MEXICO
ATLANTIC OCEAN
PHILADELPHIA
BALTIMORE
WASHINGTON
RICHMOND
NORFOLK
GETTYSBURG
HARPERS FERRY
WINCHESTER
GRAFTON
PHILIPPI
PARKERSBURG
CINCINNATI
COVINGTON
FRANKFORT
LEXINGTON
LOUISVILLE
DANVILLE
MUNFORDSVILLE
MILL SPRING
BOWLING GREEN
NASHVILLE
KNOXVILLE
CUMBERLAND GAP
LYNCHBURG
APPOMATTOX C.H.
PETERSBURG
HICKSFORD
DANVILLE
GASTON
WELDON
SALISBURY
RALEIGH
GOLDSBORO
NEWBERN
BEAUFORT
WILMINGTON
FAYETTEVILLE
AVERYSBORO
COLUMBIA
AUGUSTA
CHARLESTON
PORT ROYAL
SAVANNAH
MILLEDGEVILLE
ATLANTA
DALTON
RESACA
KINGSTON
ROME
CHATTANOOGA
MURFREESBORO
PITTSBURG LANDING
SHILOH
CORINTH
IUKA
TUSCUMBIA
DECATUR
DALLAS
JACKSON
MEMPHIS
COLUMBUS
PADUCAH
CAIRO
BELMONT
ISLAND NO 10
FT HENRY
FT DONELSON
LEXINGTON
BOONEVILLE
JEFFERSON CITY
ST LOUIS
ROLLA
CARTHAGE
SPRINGFIELD
FAYETTEVILLE
BATESVILLE
FEA RIDGE
FT SMITH
LITTLE ROCK
HELENA
HOLLY SPRINGS
ARKANSAS POST
VICKSBURG
MERIDIAN
MONTGOMERY
COLUMBUS
SHREVEPORT
GRAND GULF
JACKSON
SABINE CROSS ROADS
NATCHITOCHES
PORT GIBSON
NATCHEZ
ALEXANDRIA
FT DE RUSSY
PORT HUDSON
BATON ROUGE
MOBILE
NEW ORLEANS
BRASHEAR
FT JACKSON
FT ST PHILIP
TALLAHASSEE
JACKSONVILLE
FERNANDINA
ST AUGUSTINE
CEDAR KEY
ANDERSONVILLE
DARIEN
BRUNSWICK
BEAUFORT
FT MOULTRIE
FT SUMTER
FT MC ALLISTER
FT FISHER
CAPE FEAR RIVER
CAPE LOOKOUT
CAPE HATTERAS
HATTERAS INLET
ROANOKE ISLAND
ALBEMARLE SD
FT MONROE
Missouri R.
Mississippi R.
Ohio R.
Tennessee R.
Cumberland R.
Kentucky R.
Arkansas River
White River
Red River
Big Black River
Yazoo River
Tallahatchie R.
Yalobusha R.
Tombigbee R.
Alabama R.
Chattahoochee R.
Flint R.
Apalachicola R.
Ocmulgee R.
Oconee R.
Savannah R.
Combahee R.
Edisto R.
Santee R.
Pedee R.
Cape Fear River
Neuse R.
Tar R.
Roanoke R.
Chowan R.
James R.
Appomattox R.
Rappahannock R.
Potomac R.
Shenandoah R.
Monongahela R.
Kanawha R.
Big Sandy R.
Sabine R.
Millikens Bend
Lake Pontchartrain
Lake Borgne
Bayou Teche
Bayou Lafourche
Bayou Plaquemine
Bayou Manchac
Bayou Sara
Bayou Pierre
Bayou Vidal
Bayou Boeuf
Bayou Rapides
Bayou Terre Aux Bœufs
Bayou Des Allemands
Bayou Des Glaises
Bayou Des Cannes

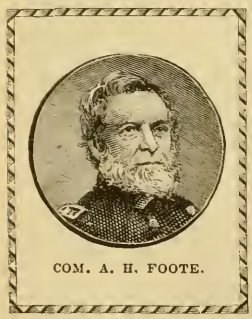
Chapter XLI.

EVENTS OF 1862.

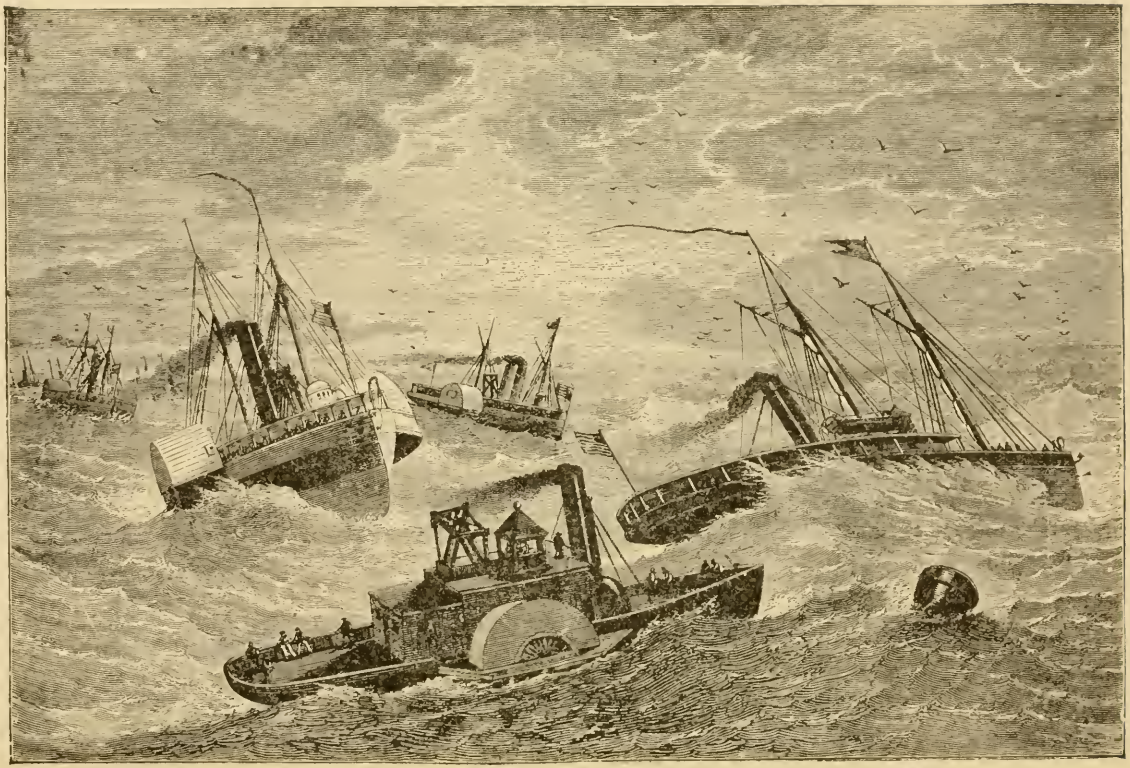
Men in Arms.— At the beginning of 1862 the entire Union army numbered more than a half million men, most of whom were volunteers. They were placed in several divisions to carry out the plan proposed.


GEN. ULYSSES S. GRANT.

Capture of Forts Henry and Donelson.—In February, General Ulysses S. Grant with a strong land force, aided by a fleet of gunboats under Commodore Foote, captured Fort Henry on the Tennessee River, and Fort Donelson on the Cumberland, taking ten thousand prisoners, with cannon and other military stores. These victories caused the evacuation of Nashville, the capital of Tennessee, and Columbus on the Mississippi, and gave all of Kentucky and most of Tennessee to the Union forces.


COM. A. H. FOOTE.

Battle of Shiloh.—General Grant then marched up the Tennessee to a place called Shiloh, or Pittsburgh Landing, where, on the morning of April 6th, he was suddenly attacked by a large force in command of General A. S. Johnston and General Beauregard. All day the battle raged with great slaughter, and had it not been for the gunboats the Union forces must have surrendered. Just at night, General D. C. Buell, with



BURNSIDE'S FLEET CROSSING HATTERAS BAR.

a large force, came to Grant's aid. The next morning the Confederates were slowly driven back, and retreated southward. This was the first great battle of the war. More than twenty thousand men fell, killed and wounded.

Planned by a Woman.—It is said that the campaign which resulted in these great victories was planned by Anna E. Carroll, of Maryland, a descendant of Charles Carroll, signer of the Declaration of Independence. Miss Carroll was intensely loyal, and published articles which drew the attention of leading congressmen, and made her the adviser of President Lincoln. By advice of the War Department she went to St. Louis, where she planned the Tennessee campaign. Her plan was adopted by the administration, and carried out by General Grant. By this campaign the Confederacy received a terrible blow, European intervention was averted, "the national credit was revived, the heart of the country was strengthened, and its drooping courage toned up to firm resolution." (*See My Story of the War, by Mary A. Livermore.*)

Capture of New Orleans.—Early in April, Admiral Farragut and General Butler, with a squadron of forty-five vessels, entered the mouth of the Mississippi for the purpose of capturing New Orleans, the metropolis of the South. The city was defended by Forts Jackson and St. Philip, seventy-five miles below; and a chain was stretched across the river near the forts. The Confederates had also several rafts built with inflammable material, thirteen gunboats, a floating battery, and an iron ram.

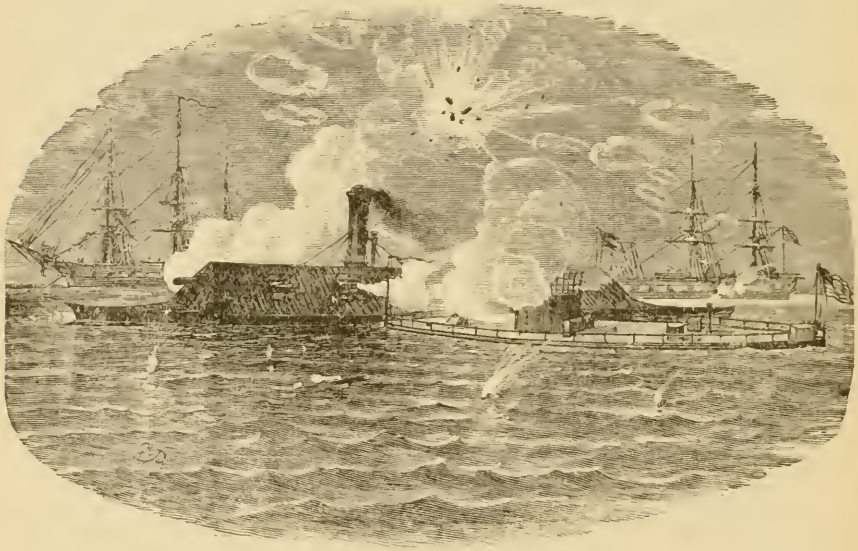
For six days and nights the fleet bombarded the forts with but little effect, though the cannonading was so severe that windows in buildings miles away were broken by the concussion of the air, and fish in the river were stunned, and lay floating on the water. Farragut then ran past the forts, receiving a terrible fire of shot and shell. After a desperate struggle, he destroyed the Confederate flotilla, and succeeded in reaching the city. The forts surrendered a few days later, and on the first of May General Butler, with a land force, took possession of the city.

Vicksburg and Port Hudson were the only strongly fortified places still held by the Confederates on the Mississippi, but so long as these were in their hands they could obtain beef and other supplies from the West, and the Confederacy would remain undivided.

Operations on the Coast.—While the war was going on in the West the armies in the East were not idle. Early in the spring, a land and naval force under General Burn-

side and Commodore Goldsborough took Roanoke Island and Newbern, North Carolina; Elizabeth City was captured, and a Confederate flotilla at that place destroyed; Fort Pulaski, at the entrance of the Savannah River, was also taken, and other places along the coast.

The Merrimac and Monitor. — When Norfolk, Virginia, was taken by the Confederates, the Union commander scut-



BATTLE BETWEEN THE MERRIMAC AND MONITOR.

tled several vessels, among which was the Merrimac, one of the finest in the United States navy. The Confederates raised this ship, cut her down nearly to the water's edge, built her up with sides sloping like a roof, covered her with railroad iron, and gave her a bow of steel.

On the 8th of March this ironclad steamed out from Norfolk to Hampton Roads and destroyed the wooden ships Cumberland and Congress, whose broadsides produced no effect on the monster. Night came on to prevent the de-

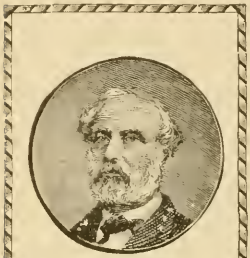
struction of other national vessels, but it was feared that the Merrimac would return in the morning to complete the work she had begun.

About nine o'clock that night a newly invented vessel, called the Monitor, in command of Lieutenant Worden, reached the scene of action. The Monitor was planned and built by Captain Ericsson, of New York, an engineer of Swedish birth. She was one hundred and seventy feet long, and looked like a "cheese-box on a raft." When the Merrimac sailed out the next day she met this new and strange foe. Hour after hour the battle raged, neither producing much effect on the other. At last a shell from the Monitor passed through a port hole of the Merrimac, killing and wounding several of her crew; she then steamed back to Norfolk, leaving the little Monitor with a parting shot.

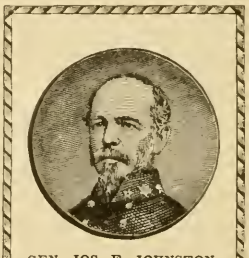
This victory over the Merrimac was hailed with joy in the North, as she might have destroyed the shipping in all our great harbors, and even the cities themselves. The fight proved that wooden ships of war are of little use, and all nations began to build armored vessels.

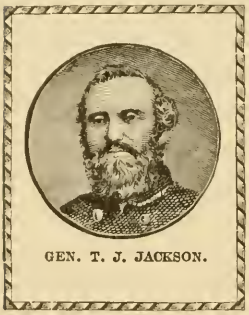
The Peninsular Campaign.—Early in October, McClellan was at the head of two hundred thousand men, the largest army ever gathered on the American continent. The people of the North looked for an immediate advance, and the cry, "On to Richmond!" was heard on every hand; but the grand army was not set in motion till the 10th of March, when it was found that the Confederate works in front had been evacuated. The plan of the campaign was then changed. A portion of the army remained for the defense of Washington, while McClellan with one hundred and twenty thousand men sailed down the Potomac and landed at Fortress Monroe. From this point he moved slowly up the peninsula between the James and York Rivers, to attack the enemy at Yorktown.

Yorktown and Williamsburg.— At Yorktown, where Cornwallis had surrendered eighty years before, McClellan found a small Confederate force, which delayed his advance for a whole month, or until the 4th of May. The Confederates then retreated to Williamsburg, where they made a stand, but were defeated with considerable loss.


GEN. ROBERT E. LEE.

Battle of Fair Oaks.—The Union army now advanced towards Richmond. When it had reached Fair Oaks, or Seven Pines, which was but seven miles from that city, it was attacked by a Confederate force under General Joseph E. Johnston. For a part of two days the battle raged with great fury. At last, the Confederates were obliged to fall back, but the Union victory was not complete.


GEN. JOS. E. JOHNSTON.


GEN. T. J. JACKSON.

Among the severely wounded was General Johnston, Commander-in-Chief of the Confederates. His place was soon filled by the appointment of General Robert E. Lee, a man of great military genius.

Jackson in the Shenandoah Valley.—McClellan intrenched himself, and waited for re-enforcements under General McDowell, who was to march across the country from Fredericksburg. But Lee had sent Stonewall Jackson with a Confederate force into the Shenandoah Valley to threaten Washington, and this skillful soldier kept McDowell so busy that no troops could be spared for McClellan.

After fighting the Union forces under Fremont at Cross Keys, and at Port Republic under General Shields, Jackson suddenly slipped away towards Richmond, and was soon threatening to cut off McClellan's lines.

The Seven-Days' Battles.—McClellan then thought it best to fall back to the James River. In doing this he was attacked by the Confederate army under General Lee. For seven days terrible battles ensued, the Union forces fighting during the day, and, though holding their own, retreating at night. At Malvern Hills, the last of this series of battles, General Lee was defeated, and the Union generals were anxious to follow up their victory; but McClellan ordered a retreat to Harrison's Landing, on the James, where the army was under protection of the gunboats.

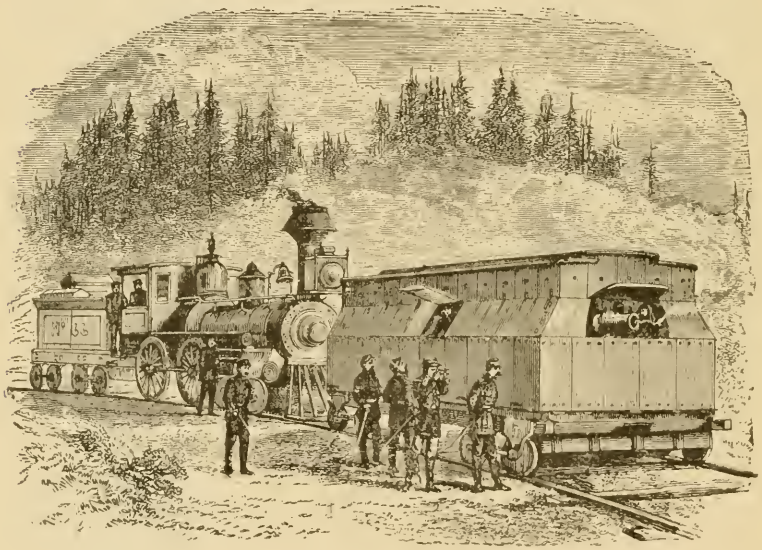
The News of McClellan's Retreat.—The total loss in these battles was more than thirty thousand men. The people of the North received the news of McClellan's retreat and the failure of the Richmond campaign with great sorrow; but the South was much encouraged.

Second Battle of Bull Run.—As Richmond was no longer in danger from McClellan's army, Lee moved northward, again threatening Washington. He met General Pope, in command of what was called the Army of Virginia, on the old battle-field of Bull Run, and gained a victory over him, compelling the Union forces to fall back towards Washington.

Battle of Antietam.—Lee took advantage of this victory and crossed the Potomac into Maryland, landing his army on Northern soil. Meanwhile the remnants of the Union army had been brought in boats from the James to Washington, and with all the troops that could be gathered, McClellan was sent against Lee, whom he met at Antietam, Maryland (September 16-17). A battle was fought

in which over one hundred thousand men were actually engaged, and the loss on both sides was great. The Union army had the advantage, and Lee retreated under cover of night, re-crossing the Potomac into Virginia.

McClellan did not follow up his victory, and as there was great dissatisfaction on account of his many delays, he was removed from command, and General Ambrose E. Burnside placed at the head of the "Army of the Potomac."



RAILROAD BATTERY.

Battle of Fredericksburg.—Burnside marched into Virginia, crossed the Rappahannock, and took Fredericksburg, but in an attempt to storm the Confederate works back of the town he was repulsed with great slaughter, and was obliged to fall back.

The Armies of the West.—During this time the armies of the West were in motion. The South was not willing

to give up Kentucky, many of whose citizens desired to make it a Confederate state; and a large force under General Bragg marched into the state from Chattanooga. Bragg advanced as far as Louisville, where he was turned back by a Union force under General Buell, and returned to East Tennessee, fighting the battle of Perryville on his way.

Battles of Iuka and Corinth.—The forces under General Grant had sharp engagements with the Confederates at Iuka and Corinth, in which the Confederates were defeated, but not captured.

Plan for the Capture of Vicksburg.—In order to open the Mississippi, Grant was to march his army to the rear of Vicksburg, while Sherman, with another force and a fleet of gunboats under Commodore Porter, was to move down the river to co-operate with Grant in the attack. But a Confederate cavalry force swept down on Holly Springs, and destroyed a large quantity of provisions gathered for Grant's army, and this hindered the expected movement. Sherman made the proposed attack, but as he was unsupported by Grant, was defeated with great loss.

Battle of Murfreesboro.—The year closed with the battle of Murfreesboro. General Bragg marched north the second time, and, on the morning of December 31, attacked Rosecrans, now in command of Buell's army, at Stone River, near Murfreesboro. A furious conflict ensued, lasting all day. On the 2d of January, 1863, the battle was renewed. The struggle was a desperate one, but the Confederates finally withdrew from the field and marched for Chattanooga. The loss on each side was more than ten thousand men.

Freeing the Slaves as a War Measure.—So far, the government had sought to preserve the Union without freeing

the slaves. In his inaugural, President Lincoln had told the South that the government had no intention of interfering with slavery, and when Fremont and other Union generals had undertaken to free the slaves, he had set aside their action.

It was now seen that the negroes cared for the women and children of the South while all the able-bodied whites were away to the war; that they worked on the plantations and kept the Confederate army supplied with food; that they were employed in building fortifications; that in many other ways they were helpful to the Southern cause; and the President felt that to offer freedom to the blacks would be the surest way of weakening the Confederates, strengthening the Northern armies, and preserving the Union. Accordingly, on the 22d of September, a proclamation was issued containing, among other things, the following: "That on the first day of January, in the year of our Lord 1863, all persons held as slaves within any state or designated part of a state, the people whereof shall then be in rebellion against the United States, shall be then, thenceforth, and forever free." This proclamation was the most important event of the year.

The Sioux Massacre.—In August of this year, when many of the young men of Minnesota were in the South fighting for the Union, a terrible massacre occurred. The Sioux Indians were occupying reservations on the upper Minnesota River. Settlers had encroached on their lands, traders had wronged them, their annuities had not been promptly paid, and they became dissatisfied and rose against the whites.

In a week, "More than eight hundred settlers were lying mutilated and dead and others were suffering the horrors of a cruel captivity. Thousands of crazed fugitives were fleeing for safety, and for hundreds of miles the frontier was a scene of desolation, where once had reigned peace and prosperity."—*Kirk's History of Minnesota.*

Forces under General H. H. Sibley and others were sent against the savages, and the outbreak was quelled. Three hundred of the leaders were tried and condemned to death, but President Lincoln forbade the carrying out of the sentence, save in the case of thirty-eight, who were hung at Mankato, December 28.

Topics.—Tell about—

1. Men in arms.
2. Capture of Forts Henry and Donelson.
3. Battle of Shiloh.
4. Capture of New Orleans.
5. Operations on the coast.
6. The Merrimac and Monitor.
7. The Peninsular campaign.
8. Yorktown and Williamsburg.
9. Battle of Fair Oaks.
10. Jackson in the Shenandoah Valley.
11. The Seven-Days' Battles.
12. The news of McClellan's retreat.
13. Second battle of Bull Run.
14. Battle of Antietam.
15. Battle of Fredericksburg.
16. The armies of the West.
17. Battles of Iuka and Corinth.
18. Plan for the capture of Vicksburg.
19. Battle of Murfreesboro.
20. Freeing the slaves as a war measure.
21. The Sioux massacre.

Chapter XLII.

EVENTS OF 1863.

The Slaves Set Free.—True to his promise, on New Year's day, 1863, President Lincoln issued a second proclamation declaring the slaves free. The Union officers now set the negroes at liberty wherever the armies marched. Negro regiments were rapidly formed, and during the remainder of the war colored troops fought bravely on many a bloody field.

President Lincoln gave the original manuscript of his Emancipation Proclamation to the ladies having in charge the Northwestern Fair for the Sanitary Commission, Chicago, accompanying the gift with an autograph letter, in which he says, "I had some desire to retain the paper; but if it shall contribute to the relief or comfort of the soldiers, that is better."

"The manuscript was purchased for three thousand dollars, by Thomas B. Bryan, for the Chicago Soldiers' Home, of which association he was president. It was finely lithographed, and copies were sold by the Board of Managers for the benefit of a permanent home for invalid Illinois soldiers, thousands of dollars accruing to the fund from their sale. The original manuscript was finally placed in the archives of the Chicago Historical Society for safe keeping, and was there burned at the time of the great conflagration."—*My Story of the War, by Mary A. Livermore.*

The Campaign of Chancellorsville.—Burnside having resigned, General Joseph E. Hooker was placed in command of the Army of the Potomac. Both armies spent the winter in preparing for a great campaign. Hooker moved forward early in May with his splendid army of nearly one hundred and twenty thousand men, but he was defeated by Lee with a much smaller force, in what was called the campaign of Chancellorsville, in which the Confederates lost Stonewall Jackson, their popular general.

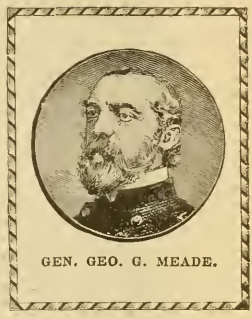
T. J. Jackson was the General's real name, the appellation "Stonewall" having its origin in a remark of General Bee at the battle of Bull Run. In rallying his retreating men, Bee shouted, "There is Jackson, standing like a STONE WALL!"

A Cloud of Gloom.—The defeat of the Union forces under Hooker caused a cloud of gloom to settle over the North. The cost of the war had become very great. Soldiers were being drafted, and large sums were paid as bounties to volunteers. Desertions were frequent, and those who sympathized with the South were crying, "The war is a failure."

Draft Riot in New York.—In some places the draft excited great opposition. In New York, on the 13th of July, a riot broke out which lasted four days, and was only put down by military force. The mob was set on by disloyal papers, and by hand-bills which appealed to the people to resist and assert their liberties. Many buildings were sacked and burned, and a large number of persons killed. The mob hunted the innocent colored people, and, "many a black woman had her humble habitation sacked and devastated, as she barely escaped into the street." The Colored Orphan Asylum, a costly building, furnishing shelter and food to two hundred orphans, was burned, and much of its furniture given to the wives and daughters of the howling mob, who stood near to receive it.*

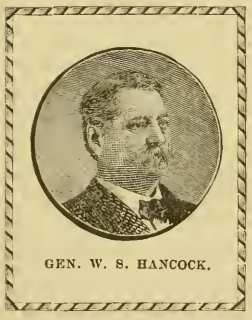
*See Greeley's American Conflict.

Battle of Gettysburg.—General Lee was encouraged by his victory, and, again resolving to carry the war into Maryland and Pennsylvania, marched down the Shenandoah Valley, crossed the Potomac and pressed on towards Harrisburg. Near Gettysburg his advance was met by the Union cavalry, and a battle was brought on. General George G. Meade had taken the place of Hooker, and the Union forces were commanded by him.



GEN. GEO. G. MEADE.

The two armies, each numbering not less than eighty thousand men, met face to face. The fearful struggle began July 1, and continued three days. On the afternoon of July 3, a Confederate column two miles long, led by General Pickett, made a terrible charge on the Union center. The charge was repulsed with awful slaughter, and the national army was victorious. Lee then withdrew his shattered forces into Virginia. This great battle was the turning point of the war. It cost the South nearly thirty thousand men, and the Union army lost about twenty-three thousand.



GEN. W. S. HANCOCK.

The National Cemetery at Gettysburg.—A few months later, there was a great meeting of men and women on the battle-field of Gettysburg to dedicate a part of it as a cemetery for the remains of the thousands of brave soldiers who had fallen. On that occasion President Lincoln gave the following address:

"Four score and seven years ago our fathers brought forth upon this continent a new nation, conceived in liberty, and dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal. Now, we are engaged in a great civil war, testing whether that nation, or any nation, so conceived and so dedicated, can long endure. We are met on a great battle-field of that war. We have come to dedicate a portion of that field as a final resting-place for those who here gave their lives that our nation might live. It is fitting that we should do this; but, in a larger sense, we

PICKETT'S CHAR

T GETTYSBURG.

cannot hallow this ground. The brave men, living and dead, who struggled here, have consecrated it far beyond anything we can do. The world will little note, nor long remember, what we *say* here; but it can never forget what they *did* here. It is for us, the living, rather to dedicate ourselves to the unfinished work which they, who fought here, have thus far so nobly advanced; to consecrate ourselves to the great task remaining; and to gather from the graves of these honored dead increased devotion to that cause for which they gave their lives. Here let us resolve that they shall not have died in vain; that this nation shall, under God, have a new birth of freedom; and that government *of* the people, *by* the people, and *for* the people shall not perish forever from the earth."

Capture of Vicksburg.—Early in the spring, efforts for the capture of Vicksburg were renewed. The city is situated on a high bluff, and was thoroughly defended on all sides by batteries. General Grant tried for several weeks to take the works by approaches from the north; but failing in this, he crossed the Mississippi above, and marched down past the city on the west side. On the nights of April 16 and 22, the fleet ran down the river, receiving the fire of eight miles of batteries with little damage. The army was then safely moved across the river by the fleet, and, taking up its line of march to the northward, was soon in the rear of Vicksburg.

General Pemberton, who was in command of the Confederate forces, came out to meet Grant, but was driven back into his works; and General Johnston, who was coming to Pemberton's aid, was defeated at Jackson. Two desperate assaults having been made upon the works without success, a regular siege was begun, and a line of earthworks fifteen miles in length was thrown up in the rear of the town. Two hundred cannon threw their shot from the Union works; and the fleet sent enormous shells which exploded in all parts of the city.

Cut off from retreat the inhabitants took shelter in holes dug in the earth. Food became so scarce that mules and horses were eaten, and the soldiers were placed on half-rations.

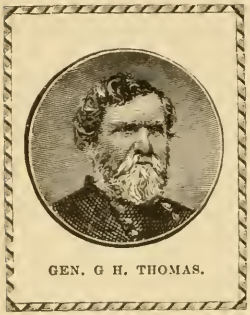
After a siege of forty-seven days, Pemberton asked Grant for terms of surrender, and the two generals met under an oak at three o'clock in the afternoon of July 3, the very hour when the Confederates were making their final charge at Gettysburg. The city surrendered July 4, and twenty-seven thousand men laid down their arms and became prisoners of war.

The Mississippi Opened.—Port Hudson, which had been besieged by General N. P. Banks, surrendered a few days later. The great river was now open to our steamers, and the Confederacy was cut in twain. On July 16, a steamer left St. Louis for New Orleans, making the first trip after a blockade of two years.

Battles in Tennessee.—After the battle of Murfreesboro the armies of Bragg and Rosecrans remained inactive until June, when Rosecrans set his forces in motion, and by a series of movements compelled Bragg to evacuate Chattanooga. Bragg was re-enforced by troops sent from Virginia, and turned upon his pursuers. The two armies met in the valley of the Chickamauga—river of death—and a two days' battle ensued (September 19-20), in which the Union forces were saved from destruction by the bravery of General George H. Thomas, who there won the name, "Rock of Chickamauga."

The Union army fell back to Chattanooga during the night, where it remained for two months, hemmed in by Confederate forces occupying the surrounding hills. Ten thousand animals died, and the army itself was threatened with starvation. Hooker was sent by rail with re-enforcements from the army of the Potomac, and Sherman brought his army from Iuka, fighting on his way. Grant was placed in command, and within three days great victories were won.

General Thomas captured Orchard Knob; General Hooker scaled the heights of Lookout Mountain, and fought a battle above the clouds; Sherman attacked Missionary Ridge, and the whole army charged up the mountain side, carrying the enemy's works at every point. More than forty thousand men were lost in these battles; but the Confederates were driven from East Tennessee, and the way to Georgia, Alabama, and the Carolinas was opened.



GEN. G H. THOMAS.

Siege of Charleston.— During 1863 no great advance had been made in the "Department of the South." Early in April Admiral Dupont attacked Charleston with a fleet of ironclads, but was repulsed with considerable damage. Later, the siege was renewed by land and naval forces, which finally resulted in the capture of Fort Wagner, Battery Gregg, Folly and Morris Islands; but Charleston remained in the hands of the Confederates at the close of the year.

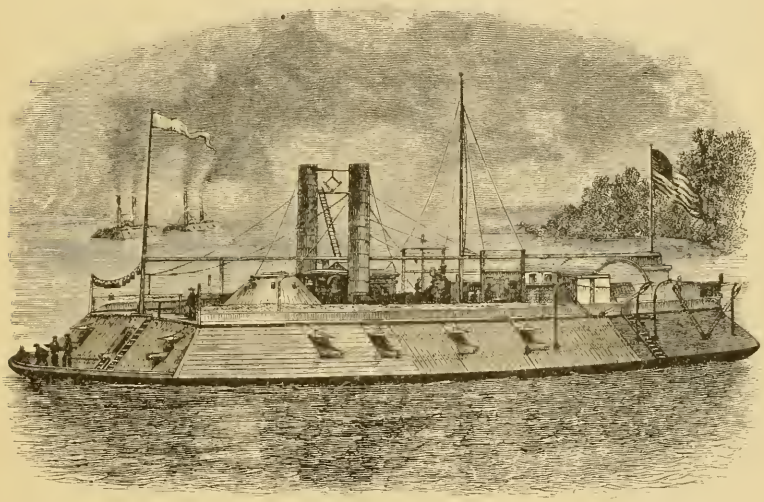
Topics.—Tell about—

1. The slaves set free.
2. The campaign of Chancellorsville.
3. A cloud of gloom.
4. The draft riot in New York.
5. Battle of Gettysburg.
6. The National Cemetery at Gettysburg.
7. Capture of Vicksburg.
8. Opening of the Mississippi.
9. Battles in Tennessee—Chickamauga, Lookout Mountain, Missionary Ridge.
10. Siege of Charleston.

Chapter XLIII.

EVENTS OF 1864.

The Red River Expedition.—Early in the spring a land force in command of General Banks, with a fleet under Admiral Porter, moved up Red River to capture Shreve-



RIVER GUNBOATS.

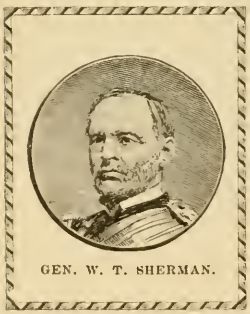
port and subdue Northern Louisiana and Texas. There was some sharp fighting, but the expedition was not successful, and on its return the entire fleet came near being captured.

The water of the river had fallen so that the vessels could not run down the rapids, and all would have been lost but for the skill of Colonel Bailey, a Wisconsin lumberman, who proposed building a dam. By the dam, the depth of water was increased over five feet, making the stream passable for the largest vessels. It was a perilous descent, however. The first gunboat that tried it

"took the chute without a balk, and then rushed like an arrow through the narrow aperture in the lower dam; pitched down the roaring torrent; hung for a moment on the rocks below; and was then swept on into deep water." All passed with but little damage, and the loss of but one man, who was swept overboard.—*Report of Admiral Porter.*

Massacre at Fort Pillow.—The Confederate general, Forrest, with a force of cavalry, made a raid into Tennessee and Kentucky. Fort Pillow surrendered after a brave defense, and three hundred colored soldiers, who formed a part of the garrison, were massacred.

Grant Made Lieutenant-General.—Grant was now regarded as the most successful of the Union generals, and he was placed in command of all the forces of the United States, with the title of Lieutenant-General. Two great movements were planned. The Army of the Potomac, under General Meade, was to move against Richmond. The army of the West, under General W. T. Sherman, was to rout the Confederate forces, destroy the railroad system of the South, march through Georgia to the sea, and thus divide the Confederacy again.



GEN. W. T. SHERMAN.

Sherman Takes Atlanta.—In May, Sherman's army moved forward to attack Johnston, who had succeeded Bragg in command. Johnston made several stands and fought bravely, but was forced to fall back from point to point, till, by the 10th of July, the whole Confederate army of the center had reached Atlanta, and taken position behind earthworks, where Sherman's attack was awaited.

Atlanta was a railroad center, with machine shops, foundries, and army supplies, which the Confederate general was determined to hold; but President Davis was dissatisfied

with Johnston's frequent retreats, and General J. B. Hood was appointed in his place. Instead of fighting behind the earthworks, Hood made three desperate attacks on the Union lines around Atlanta, but was repulsed with great loss.

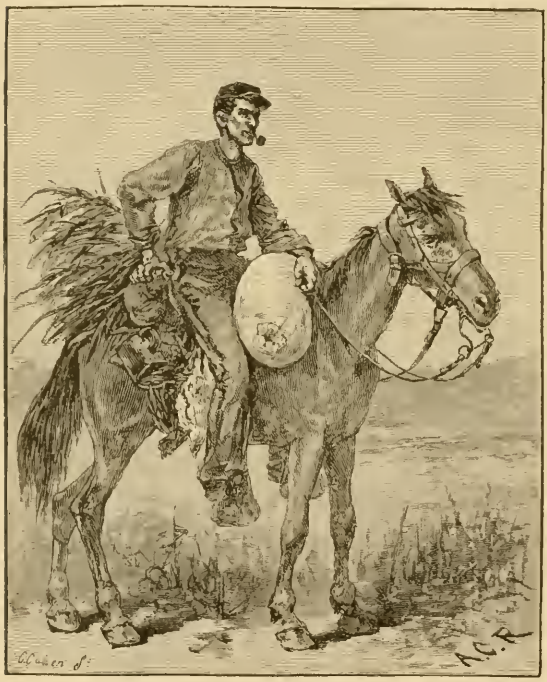
At length, Sherman, finding the enemy's works too strong to carry by direct attack, loaded his wagons with provisions, and, marching around the city to the rear, seized the railroad upon which Hood depended for supplies. The city was then evacuated by Hood, who moved northward intending to destroy the communications of the Union army; but Sherman, instead of pursuing Hood with his entire force, sent General Thomas to watch him and defend Tennessee.

Battle of Nashville.—At Nashville, Hood's army was defeated by Thomas (December 15-16), in a battle lasting two days. The Confederate loss in killed, wounded, and prisoners was twenty-five thousand men. For many days the remnants of Hood's army were pursued, as they fled, hungry and cold.

Sherman's March to the Sea.—Sherman now began his "March to the Sea" (November 14). His army of sixty thousand men moved in four columns, sweeping a wide and fertile section. The troops foraged upon the country, destroyed railroads and bridges, and left trampled fields, deserted villages, and blackened ruins in their track.

A Christmas Present.—On the 21st of December, Sherman captured Savannah, where he wrote to Lincoln, "I beg to present you, as a Christmas gift, the city of Savannah, one hundred and fifty cannon, a plenty of ammunition, and twenty-five thousand bales of cotton." The Confederacy was again cleft in twain, and there was great rejoicing in the North.

The Campaign in Virginia.—General Grant in person conducted the campaign for the capture of Richmond, Meade having subordinate command. The Army of the Potomac, one hundred and forty thousand strong, crossed the Rapidan and entered a region of oak woods and dense thickets, where the Confederate army, under Lee, was met, and a terrible fight ensued.



FORAGING—BILL'S DOIN'S.

For two days (May 5-6) the battle raged, and everywhere in the forest lay the dead and dying. This battle of the wilderness was not decisive, but Grant with his larger force was able to swing partly around Lee, who retreated and met Grant at Spottsylvania, where followed one of the bloodiest struggles of the war.

Again Grant marched to the south, outflanking Lee, who also moved south, and the two armies met at Cold Harbor, twelve miles northeast of Richmond. Here a fierce assault was made upon Lee (June 3), who was strongly intrenched. The battle lasted only twenty minutes, but

ten thousand brave Union soldiers lay dead before the works they had charged.

In this series of battles, lasting but a month, the Federals lost sixty thousand men. During the same period the Confederates lost in killed, wounded, and prisoners, about thirty-five thousand.

Siege of Petersburg.—Grant now moved southward across the James River, where he joined his forces with those of General Butler, who had come up the river from Fortress Monroe. The combined forces marched against Petersburg, where the Confederates were strongly intrenched. Petersburg was regularly besieged, but in spite of every effort, the works were not taken until the following spring.

Sheridan in the Shenandoah Valley.—Hoping to compel Grant to leave Petersburg, Lee sent General Early, with a force of twenty thousand men, with orders to sweep down the Shenandoah Valley, invade Maryland, and threaten Washington. Early reached Maryland, but was soon checked. To prevent further raids, Grant placed General Philip H. Sheridan in command of the Army of the Upper Potomac, and he marched into the valley with a force of about forty thousand men. Sheridan came upon Early at Winchester, attacked, and routed him, and three days later gained a second victory at Fisher's Hill.

The next month, when Sheridan was absent, his army was suddenly attacked, and driven in disorder from Cedar Creek. Sheridan was returning, and, hearing the firing, put spurs to his horse and met his army in full retreat. He rallied his men, charged, and routed the enemy, capturing many prisoners and fifty pieces of artillery.

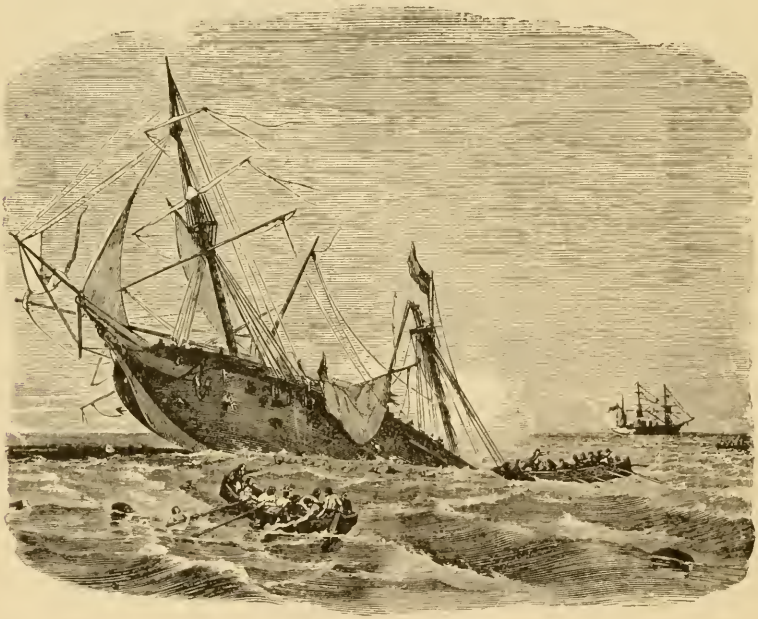
On this event, Read's ballad, entitled "Sheridan's Ride," is founded.

"Up from the South at break of day,
Bringing to Winchester fresh dismay,
The affrighted air with a shudder bore,
Like a herald in haste to the chieftain's door,
The terrible grumble, and rumble, and roar,
Telling the battle was on once more,
And Sheridan twenty miles away.

* * *

"A steed as black as the steeds of night,
Was seen to pass, as with eagle flight,
As if he knew the terrible need,
He stretched away with his utmost speed;
Hills rose and fell; but his heart was gay,
With Sheridan fifteen miles away."

These brilliant victories ruined Early's army, and gave the Union forces complete control of the valley.



SINKING OF THE ALABAMA.

Confederate Cruisers.— During the war the commerce of the United States was greatly injured by Confederate cruisers. When the blockade of Southern ports became so

close that ships of war could no longer be sent abroad, vessels were built and fitted out in British ship-yards. The British government took no notice of this.

Among the cruisers carrying the Confederate flag were the Shenandoah, which destroyed thirty-four whale ships in Northern seas, and the Alabama, commanded by Captain Raphael Semmes, which took sixty-five merchant vessels. At last, the Alabama, after scouring the seas for months, was attacked by the United States ship Kearsarge, Captain Winslow, near Cherbourg, France, and, after an engagement of two hours, was sunk, her officers and crew escaping in an English yacht.

ADMIRAL D. G. FARRAGUT.

Capture of Mobile.—Mobile Bay was a great resort for blockade runners. It was defended by two forts, and also by a fleet and torpedoes placed in the channel. A powerful squadron, under Admiral Farragut, aided by a land force, was sent against Mobile. Farragut boldly sailed past the forts into the bay, and gained a victory over the fleet, after which the forts were captured (August 5).

The forts were passed at sunrise, the fleet moving in pairs firmly lashed together. Farragut took his place in the maintop shrouds of his flag-ship, the Hartford, where, high in air, with spy-glass in hand, he directed the battle.

"We see our ships; we name each pair,
We greet the gallant flag-ship there;
God help them all this day!
Through crashing shot and bursting shell,
With a courage that no words can tell,
They force a fiery way!

* * *

"And he who planned, who cheered, who led,
Was where the shot flew overhead
As thick as swarming bees;
What might betide, what might befall,
Here was the brave old admiral
Lashed in the main cross-trees."

Lincoln Re-Elected.—At the presidential election in the autumn of 1864, Mr. Lincoln was chosen for a second term, and Andrew Johnson, of Tennessee, was elected Vice-President. General George B. McClellan and General George H. Pendleton were the candidates of the Democratic party. Mr. Lincoln's majority was very large, McClellan carrying only Kentucky and Delaware.

Topics.—Tell about—

1. The Red River expedition.
2. Massacre at Fort Pillow.
3. Lieutenant-General Grant.
4. Sherman at Atlanta.
5. Battle of Nashville.
6. Sherman's march to the sea.
7. A Christmas present.
8. The campaign in Virginia—the Wilderness, Spottsylvania, Cold Harbor.
9. Siege of Petersburg.
10. Sheridan in the Shenandoah Valley—Winchester, Fisher's Hill, Cedar Creek.
11. Confederate cruisers—Shenandoah, Alabama.
12. Capture of Mobile—Farragut in the shrouds.
13. Lincoln's re-election.

Chapter XLIV.

CLOSE OF THE WAR—1865.

Sherman's March Northward.—On the first of February Sherman's army was again in motion. Columbia was captured on the 17th, compelling the evacuation of Charleston, which was soon occupied by General Gilmore, who had besieged it for a long time; and the starry flag was hoisted over Fort Sumter (February 18), where it had not been seen since the surrender of Major Anderson.

The condition of Charleston when entered by the Union forces is thus described by an eye witness: "Not a building for blocks is exempt from the marks of shot and shell. All have suffered more or less. Here is a fine brown-stone bank building, vacant and deserted, with great, gaping holes in the sides and roof, through which the sun shines and the rain pours; windows and sashes blown out by exploding shell within; plastering knocked down; counters torn up; floors crushed in, and fragments of pavement, broken and crushed, lying around on the floor."

FIELD HOSPITAL.

Sherman still pressed northward, gaining a victory over General Hardee, and another over General Johnston, near Goldsboro, (March 19), after which a junction was formed with Union forces under Schofield, from Newbern, and under Terry, from Wilmington. The Federal army, thus strengthened, resumed its march to Raleigh, which was entered April 13. This ended Sherman's great march.

Capture of Richmond.—All the fall and winter Grant pressed the siege of Petersburg without being able to gain a decided victory; on the 29th of March the final movement began. Generals Sheridan and Warren were sent to attack Lee's right flank, and the battle of Five Forks ensued, in which the Confederates were defeated with a loss of six thousand prisoners. A general attack was now made, and the works at Petersburg were carried. That night the Confederate government and Lee's army fled from Richmond, and the next morning the city was entered by Grant.

End of the War.—General Lee, hoping to join his army to that of Johnston in Carolina, retreated to the southwest, but he was so sorely pressed that "hundreds of soldiers dropped from exhaustion, and thousands let fall their muskets from inability to carry them." Near Appomattox Court House, on the 9th of April, 1865, Lee surrendered his army to General Grant. The surrender of other Confederate forces soon followed, and the great Rebellion was at an end.

Death of President Lincoln.—There was great rejoicing all over the North when the news of Lee's surrender and the end of the war sped over the wires. But a few days later the joy was turned into mourning by the assassination of President Lincoln. On the evening of April 14, while sitting in a theater, where he had gone with his wife to seek rest from his many cares, an actor, named John Wilkes Booth, stole into the President's box and sent a pistol shot through his brain. Lincoln lay unconscious until morning, when he quietly passed away.

No other president since the days of Washington had borne so heavy a burden. He was lovingly called "Honest Old Abe," and everybody knew that he had a tender heart,

and was far-seeing, resolute, and patient. His quaint humor never forsook him, even in the darkest days of war; and he bore no ill-will even towards those who had taken arms against his country. In his inaugural address, but a month before, he had used these grand words: "With malice towards none, with charity for all, with firmness in the right, as God gives us to see the right, let us strive on to finish the work we are in, to bind up the nation's wounds, to care for him who has borne the battle, and for his widow and his orphans, to do all which may achieve and cherish a just and lasting peace among ourselves and with all nations."

Lincoln Medals.—The assassination of President Lincoln made a deep impression on the people of every civilized land. No less than one hundred and eighty-nine medals were struck in his honor. Forty thousand French Democrats, desiring to express their sympathy for the American Union, caused a magnificent gold medal to be presented to the President's widow. It is about four inches in diameter. On one side is a raised profile of Mr. Lincoln, surrounded by the words, "Dedicated by the French Democracy. A. Lincoln, Twice Elected President of the United States." On the reverse side is an altar with the following inscription: "Lincoln. Honest Man. Abolished Slavery, Re-established the Union, and Saved the Republic, Without Veiling the Statue of Liberty. He was Assassinated the 14th of April, 1865." On one side of the altar stands Victory with a sword and wreath; on the other are two emancipated slaves, together with emblems of industry and progress.

Capture of Jefferson Davis.—Jefferson Davis fled, with his wife and family, but was overtaken and captured near Macon, Georgia, by Colonel Pritchard, of Wilson's command. For two years he was confined as prisoner of state at Fortress Monroe, but was released without trial in 1868.

New States.—West Virginia was admitted to the Union in 1863, and Nevada, the Silver State, named from the snow-covered mountains on the west, joined the Union in 1864.

Topics.—Tell what you can of—

1. Sherman's march northward—Fall of Charleston.
2. Capture of Richmond.
3. End of the war.
4. Death of Lincoln.
5. Lincoln medals.
6. Capture of Jefferson Davis.
7. New states.

Chapter XLV.

OTHER MATTERS RELATING TO THE WAR.

What the War Decided.—The great Civil War, as it is called, decided:

1. That the Union is to be preserved—that a state may not secede—not a star is to be stricken from the dear old flag!

2. That there shall be no slaves on our soil—liberty was proclaimed throughout all the land.

3. That one nation, the United States, is to be the great power in North America.

Enlistments and Losses.—The whole number of men called into the Union service during the war was nearly 2,700,000. As many of the men enlisted twice, or thrice, and many deserted, it is probable that not more than 1,500,000 were actually in the field. Of this number, 180,000 were blacks. The Confederates, it is said, mustered in 1,300,000 men. The losses by death, on both sides, amounted to nearly 600,000. Add the crippled and those who were disabled by disease, and the loss reaches a total of 1,000,000 men.

One must stop to think in order to form any idea of these vast numbers. An army representing the six hundred thousand dead, if marching four abreast, twenty miles a day, would be six days in passing a given point; while the cripples and disabled, if arranged in the same way, would make a column eighty miles in length.

Cost of the War.—The war cost the government more than $2,700,000,000. The people of the loyal states contributed, of their own free will, $500,000,000. The Confederate debt amounted to $2,000,000,000, and the free offer-

rings of the people of the South were very large. Besides these vast sums, there were the desolated fields, the ruined villages and cities, the demolished railroads and bridges, on which no price can be set.

If the sum which the war cost the government were in silver dollars, more than seventy-nine thousand farm wagons might be loaded with the treasure. This number of wagons, with two horses to each, would form a train five hundred miles in length.

UNION REFUGEES.

During the war large numbers of refugees, white and black, found protection within the Union lines. Men, women, and children deserted their homes, seeking food, clothing, and medicine at the headquarters of the Sanitary Commission, wherever it chanced to be established.

The Public Debt.—To meet the expenses of the war the government placed duties on tea, coffee, tobacco, and many other articles. Revenue stamps were used on notes, checks, bonds, and mortgages; and the government borrowed money by giving interest-bearing bonds payable

after a certain number of years. It also issued paper money, or "greenbacks," which were used to pay all debts and taxes. The greenbacks were "legal tender," and as the government was pledged to redeem them in coin, everybody felt safe. The loyal people knew that "Uncle Sam" would be as good as his word. A large portion of the war debt has already been paid. The Confederate war debt has not been paid, and the bonds of the Confederacy are worthless. Before the war closed its paper money was worth no more than five cents on the dollar, and, after the defeat of Lee, it had no value whatever.

Soldiers in Prison.—Libby, Belle Isle, and Danville, in Virginia; Salisbury prison, in North Carolina; Andersonville and Millen prisons, in Georgia; and Charleston, in South Carolina, were the principal places where Union prisoners were confined during the war. In all these the captives sometimes endured terrible sufferings. Most of the prisons were camps surrounded by high stockades and guarded by Confederate soldiers. In these prison pens thousands of men were huddled together, exposed to rains, dews, and frosts, and without suitable food, water, clothing, or medical aid.

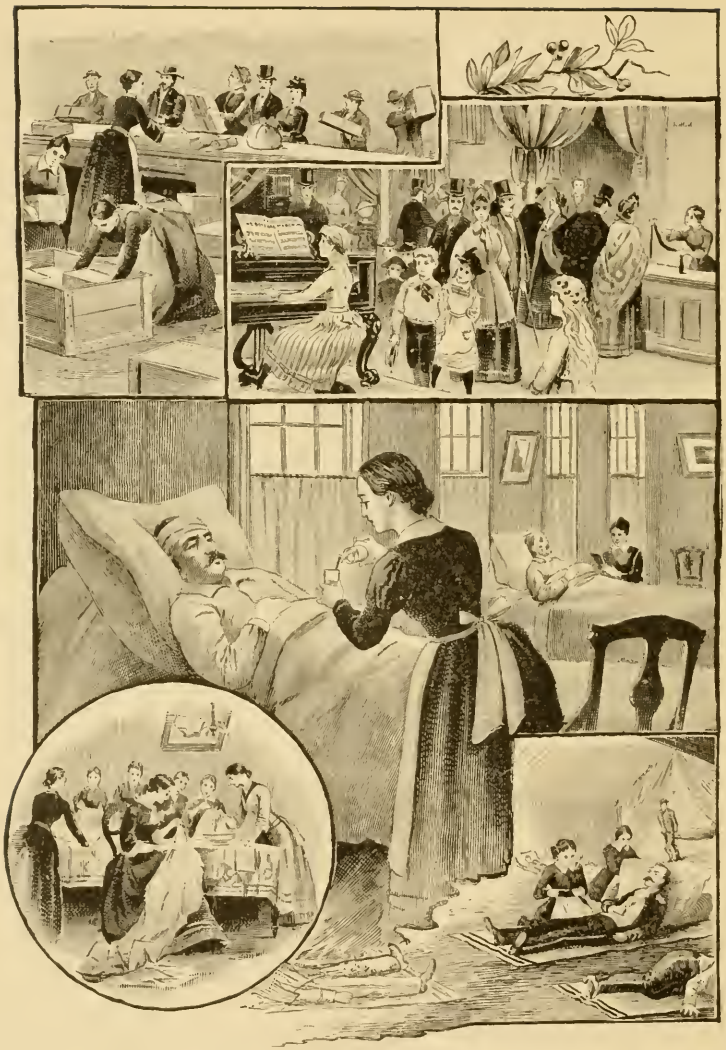
The prison pen at Andersonville is thus described by Inspector-General Chandler, a Confederate officer, who visited it in July, 1864: "No shelter whatever, nor materials for constructing any, had been provided by the prison authorities, and the ground being entirely bare of trees, none is within the reach of the prisoners, nor has it been possible, from the overcrowded state of the inclosure, to arrange the camp with any system. Each man has been permitted to protect himself as best he can by stretching his blanket, or whatever he may have about him, on such sticks as he can procure. Of other shelter there has been none.

"There is no medical attendance within the stockade. Many (twenty yesterday) are carted out daily who have died from unknown causes, and whom the medical officers have never seen. The dead are hauled out daily by the wagon load. * * * Raw rations have to be issued to a very large portion, who are entirely unprovided with proper utensils, and furnished with so limited a supply of fuel that they are compelled to dig with their hands in the filthy marsh before mentioned for roots, etc. No soap or clothing has ever been issued."

As the Confederate soldiers usually treated captives fairly, they are not to be held responsible for these sufferings. The blame must fall upon those who were in authority, and, as a writer says, "It was scarcely their fault that their prisoners were coarsely and scantily fed during the last year or more wherein their armies were on half-rations, and when no one willingly gave grain or meat for their currency; but they at no time lacked either eligible sites or timber; and there is no excuse for failure to provide ample and commodious shelter, with abundance of pure water and fuel."

Large numbers of Confederate prisoners were confined at Elmira, N. Y., at Camp Douglas, Chicago, and on Rock Island, in the Mississippi; and complaint was made of officers who held them in custody, especially of those at Camp Douglas, where there had been frequent attempts to overpower the guards, and the utmost vigilance seemed necessary. But in the main, the government was able to supply ample shelter, wholesome food, and medical attendance.

Christian and Sanitary Commissions.—All through the great struggle, the government and the army had the active sympathy of the people of the North. Everywhere associations were formed for the relief of the brave soldiers. A Christian Commission was organized to give moral and religious instruction. It scattered Bibles, hymn-books, papers, and magazines; held daily prayer-meetings in every camp; and in all the chief cities provided pleasant rooms, with books and writing material for the free use of soldiers. A Sanitary Commission was also organized, and from Maine to Oregon it had its army of helpers. For every soldier sent to the front, there was at least one worker for his support among the million laborers enlisted in aid of the Commission.



WORK OF THE SANITARY COMMISSION.

The loving hands of women toiled ceaselessly. They scraped lint, made bandages, shirts, towels, bed-ticks, pillows, and hospital clothing. Nurses bent over the wounded and dying on every one of the six hundred pitched battle-fields of the war; they were the angels who watched in every hospital. The Commission furnished ambulances, hospital cars, steamers, stretchers, canned fruits, medicines, hot coffee, paper, envelopes, reading matter, taverns for discharged soldiers and those absent on sick leave. "The blue and the gray shared alike in their offices of mercy."

The United States Sanitary Commission sprung from seed sown and chiefly nurtured by woman. On the very day when Lincoln called for seventy-five thousand volunteers, the women of Bridgeport, Connecticut, formed a society to afford relief and comfort to soldiers. On the same day Miss Almena Bates, of Charlestown, Massachusetts, took steps to organize a similar society, and, a few days later, the women of Lowell, and of Cleveland, Ohio, were making a move in the same direction. In this way the grand work had its beginning. When the war closed, it was found that the people of the land had given five million dollars in cash, and supplies valued at fifteen million dollars.

Union Nurses.—Miss Dorothea L. Dix, the philanthropist who had done so much for prisoners, lunatics, and paupers, offered her services gratuitously to the government, and obtained its sanction for the organization of hospitals and the furnishing of nurses for them. Eight days after the President's call for troops, the Secretary of War, Simon Cameron, issued a proclamation, announcing the acceptance of Miss Dix's services, and all women who offered themselves as nurses were requested to report to her. Edwin M. Stanton, called the great war secretary, who succeeded Mr. Cameron, did all in his power to aid Miss Dix, and in a short time several hundred women were being trained in the hospitals under her direction.

MARY A. LIVERMORE.

Mrs. Mary A. Livermore was active in the work of the Sanitary Commission from the earliest organization of aid societies in the city of Chicago until the joyful news of peace was sent over the land. Sometimes she was in its busy rooms at home, sometimes in the hospitals, or engaged with soldiers' aid societies in the Northwest.

Mrs. Jane C. Hoge was the friend of Mrs. Livermore, and her co-worker. She had two sons in the army, and gave herself to the work of relieving sick and wounded soldiers; assisting in collecting, cutting, making, and packing whatever was needed, and visiting hospitals at the front.

Miss Mary J. Safford, of Cairo, Illinois, was the first woman in the West to enter upon hospital and camp relief. She spent freely of her wealth, and, though frail, small in stature, and unaccustomed to hardship, she threw herself into the work with such energy and forgetfulness of self that she broke down before the close of the second year of the war. "The effect of her presence in the hospitals was magical. It was like a breath of spring borne into the bare, whitewashed walls—like a burst of sunlight."

Mrs. Cordelia A. P. Harvey, of Wisconsin, passed three years in the hospitals and at the front in devoted labor for the soldiers.

"Mrs. Mary A. Bickerdyke stands pre-eminent. * * * She gave herself to the rank and file of the army—the private soldiers, for whom she had unbounded tenderness, and developed almost limitless resources of help and comfort. To them she was strength and sweetness, and for them she exercised sound, practical sense, a ready wit, and a rare intelligence, that made her a power in the hospital or on the field. There was no peril she would not dare for a sick and wounded man. No official red tape or formality for which she cared more than for a common tow string, if it interfered with her in her work of relief. To their honor be it said, the 'boys' reciprocated her affection most heartily.

"'That homely figure, clad in calico, wrapped in a shawl, and surmounted with a "Shaker" bonnet, is more to this army than the Madonna to a Catholic!' said an officer, pointing to Mother Bickerdyke, as she emerged from the Sanitary Commission headquarters, in Memphis, laden with an assortment of supplies. Every soldier saluted her as she passed; and those who were at leisure relieved her of her burden, and bore it to its destination. To the entire army of the West she was emphatically '*Mother* Bickerdyke.' Nor have the soldiers forgotten her in her poverty and old age. They remember her to-day in many a tender letter, and send her many a small donation to eke out her scanty and irregular income."—*My Story of the War, by Mary A. Livermore.*

A SOLDIER'S PSALM OF WOMAN.*

* * * *

Oh, wives and mothers, sanctified
By holy consecrations,
Turning our weariness aside
With blessed ministrations!
Oh, maidens, in whose dewy eyes,
Perennial comforts glitter,
Untangling war's dark mysteries,
And making sweet the bitter—

In desolate paths, or dangerous posts,
By places which to-morrow
Shall be unto these bannered hosts
Aceldamas of sorrow;

*The poem from which these touching lines are taken was written by an Illinois soldier at Chattanooga, and may be found in a work entitled My Story of the War, by Mary A. Livermore. The author is indebted to this most interesting book for the facts contained in the brief sketches given above, except those relating to Miss Dix.

We hear the sound of helping feet—
  We feel your soft caressings—
And all our life starts up to greet
  Your lovingness with blessings!

On cots of pain, on beds of woe,
  Where stricken heroes languish,
Wan faces smile, and sick hearts grow
  Triumphant over anguish.
While souls that starve in lonely gloom,
  Flash green with odorous praises,
And all the lowly pallets bloom
  With gratitude's white daisies.

Oh, lips that from our wounds have sucked
  The fever and the burning!
Oh, tender fingers that have plucked
  The madness from our mourning!
Oh, hearts that beat so loyal true,
  For soothing and for saving!
God send our hopes back unto you,
  Crowned with immortal having!

Women of the South.—The women of the South encouraged their husbands and sons to enter the army, and organized soldiers' relief societies and hospital associations for their aid. They deprived themselves of every luxury they could obtain in order to help the boys in gray. Rye, chestnuts, and ground nuts were made into drinks to save the real coffee for the soldiers. The women tore their clothing into bandages, made wedding dresses into flags, sold their jewelry, heir-looms, and bridal gifts for medicines. No tongue can tell the self-denial of the Southern women. They carded, spun, wove, and colored their own garments; pine knots and candles were burned in place of gas; thorns were used for hair-pins, and shoes with soles of wood were worn.

National Cemeteries.—When the war was over the government established National Cemeteries, into which it sought to gather the precious dust of the brave soldiers who had fallen wherever its armies had marched. For several years men were employed to search the battle-fields and

the routes of armies for the graves of the honored dead. In some cemeteries the bones of ten thousand, in others, of twenty thousand, soldiers were gathered. On a tablet was recorded the name of the soldier and the battle in which he died; but often the record reads, "Unknown."

Decoration Day.—No city or town, North or South, is without its soldiers' graves; and, soon after the war, in the South, it is said, began the custom of strewing them with flowers. From New Orleans to Maine a day is now set apart for decorating soldiers' graves. The South has chosen a day in April, while the 30th of May is Memorial day in the North. As time more and more effaces the bitterness of war, flowers are strewed on the graves of both Union and Confederate dead. As the poet says:

* * * *
From the silence of sorrowful hours
The desolate mourners go,
Lovingly laden with flowers,
Alike for the friend and the foe,—
Under the sod and the dew,
Waiting the judgment day;
Under the laurel, the Blue,
Under the willow, the Gray.
* * * *
No more shall the war-cry sever,
Or the winding rivers be red:
They banish our anger forever
When they laurel the graves of our dead,—
Under the sod and the dew,
Waiting the judgment day;
Love and tears for the Blue,
Tears and love for the Gray. —*F. M. Finch.*

Topics.—Tell about—

1. What the war decided.
2. Enlistments and losses.
3. Cost of the war.
4. The public debt.
5. Soldiers in prison.
6. The Christian and Sanitary Commissions.
7. The women of the South.
8. National cemeteries.
9. Decoration day.

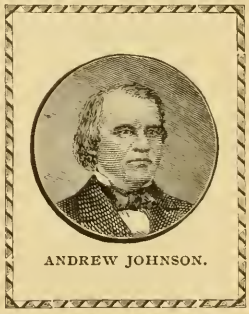
PART SIXTH.

AFTER THE WAR FOR THE UNION.

CHAPTER XLVI.

JOHNSON'S ADMINISTRATION—1865-1869.

Questions to be Settled.—On the death of Lincoln, Vice-President Johnson became President. Peace had been declared, but there were great questions to be settled. There was an immense war debt, and ways must be provided for its payment. The seceding states must be brought back, and the emancipated slaves cared for. Some thought that the Confederate states had forfeited all rights, and should come in as territories. Others were of the opinion that they could come back and go on just as they had done before the war. These differences of opinion led to much controversy.



ANDREW JOHNSON.

Proclamations.—President Johnson issued proclamations offering pardon to all who had participated in the war, save certain leaders, and opening the blockaded ports of the South to the trade of the world.

Slavery Abolished.—The Emancipation Proclamation had been issued as a war measure, but it gave freedom to

slaves in the seceded states only. To settle the question of slavery forever, Congress adopted a thirteenth amendment to the Constitution, by which it was abolished in all the states and territories of the Union. By the 18th of December (1865), the legislatures of twenty states had ratified this amendment, and it was declared a part of the Constitution.

The Freedmen's Bureau.—The slaves who had gained their liberty were known as Freedmen. They had not been taught to read or write, knew little of the meaning of a vote, and, as a race, were child-like and helpless. Many of the Freedmen were anxious to learn, and eager to earn their own living; but thousands were so ignorant and bewildered that they could not make the best use of their freedom.

Congress, regarding the freed blacks as the wards of the nation, established a Freedmen's Bureau, and placed General O. O. Howard at its head (1865). The bureau undertook to protect the Freedmen in their rights, to see that they were provided with food and shelter, to look after the education of their children, and in all ways to keep them from wrong until they had learned to help themselves. Thousands of noble, self-sacrificing men and women went from the North to carry on the work of the bureau, which performed its duties well so long as they were required.

The Fourteenth Amendment.—A fourteenth amendment to the Constitution, making the freed slaves citizens of the United States, was proposed by Congress (1866), and ratified by the states in 1868.

Reconstruction Measures.—President Johnson held that the states had the right to come back without any conditions; and when Congress passed reconstruction measures requiring them to annul their acts of secession, make void all debts incurred in carrying on the war, and adopt the amendment abolishing slavery in order to get back into the Union, he vetoed several of the measures, and, though Congress passed them over his veto, it led to much ill-feeling.

Impeachment of the President.—Congress had passed a law forbidding the President to remove persons from office without consent of the Senate; but Johnson refused to

obey. and went so far as to dismiss Edwin M. Stanton, the Secretary of War. This led the House of Representatives to impeach the President; that is, to bring him to trial before the Senate in order to have him removed from office. There was great excitement over the whole country, but, after a long trial, the Senate voted to acquit.

States Return to the Union.—One by one the Southern States returned to the Union, all but three being admitted in time to vote for the next president.

Alaska and Nebraska.—The territory of Alaska was purchased of Russia for $7,200,000; and Nebraska, the thirty-seventh state, was made a member of the Union the same year (1867).

Alaska was a large addition to the territory of the United States. William H. Seward, as Secretary of State, favored the purchase; and, as most people then thought that the country was worthless, he was made to bear a great deal of ridicule. Soon it became known that its waters were alive with fish, that countless seals resorted to its islands, that it had valuable forests, and large mineral resources. The table given below shows the original territory of the United States, and the additions made at different periods. (*See map, page* 150).

TERRITORIAL GROWTH.

United States in 1783,	827,844	square	miles.
Louisiana purchase (including Oregon), 1803,	1,171,625	"	"
Florida purchase, 1819,	58,680	"	"
Annexation of Texas, 1845,	376,133	"	"
Mexican cession, 1848,	545,783	"	"
Gadsden purchase, 1853,	45,535	"	"
Purchase of Alaska, 1867,	577,390	"	"
Total, 1889,	3,602,990	"	"

The Ocean Telegraph.—The laying of an ocean telegraph cable from Ireland to Newfoundland was one of the most important events of this period (1866). The success of the enterprise was due to Cyrus W. Field, of New York, who had strong faith and persevered in the work. A line was laid in 1858, but it soon broke, and many believed that it was useless to lay another. At last, after many

THE GREAT EASTERN LAYING THE OCEAN TELEGRAPH CABLE.

difficulties, the cable was placed aboard the Great Eastern, and she steamed across the Atlantic, the cable unwinding from a reel as she went. Ocean cables are now common, and the news is flashed from continent to continent.

Election of Grant.—In the presidential election of 1868, General Grant, the Republican candidate, was chosen over Horatio Seymour, nominated by the Democrats. Schuyler Colfax was chosen Vice-President.

Topics.—Tell about—

1. Questions to be settled.
2. Proclamations.
3. Slavery abolished—Thirteenth amendment.
4. Fourteenth amendment.
5. Reconstruction measures.
6. Impeachment of the President.
7. The states returning to the Union.
8. Alaska and Nebraska.
9. The ocean telegraph cable.
10. Election of Grant.

Chapter XLVII.

GRANT'S ADMINISTRATION—1869-1877.

The Union Restored.—During the first year of Grant's administration, Virginia, Mississippi, and Texas complied with all the conditions imposed, and were allowed representation in Congress, and, for the first time since the Civil War began, all the states had a voice in national affairs—the Union was restored.

The Two Oceans Joined.—The completion of the first of the great lines of railroad across the plains and mountains to the Pacific was a very important event. The road was built by two companies, the Central Pacific, working eastward from California, and the Union Pacific,

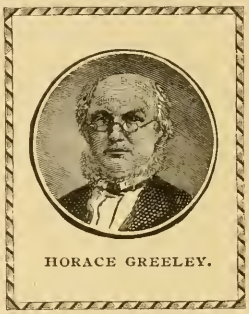
working westward from the Missouri River. The two lines met at Ogden, and the last tie was laid with great ceremony (May 10, 1869). It was of polished laurel-wood bound with silver bands. California furnished a gold spike, Nevada, a silver one, and Arizona, one of iron, silver, and gold. As the spikes were driven in presence of a vast crowd, the strokes of the hammer were telegraphed all over the Union. The Atlantic and Pacific Oceans were now joined by iron bands.

The Fifteenth Amendment.—Although the slaves had been declared citizens, they were not allowed to vote and, before the close of Johnson's term, Congress proposed a fifteenth amendment to the Constitution, giving the right of suffrage to all citizens of the United States without regard to "race, color, or previous condition of servitude." This amendment was ratified by three-fourths of the states, and the President declared it adopted (March 30, 1870).

The Chicago Fire.—In October, 1871, occurred the most terrible fire known in the history of our country. In the city of Chicago eighteen thousand buildings were consumed, two hundred million dollars' worth of property was destroyed, two hundred lives were lost, and one hundred thousand people were left homeless. The news of the disaster was telegraphed over the land, causing a great wave of sympathy, and before the fires had died out contributions for the stricken ones began to flow in from all portions of the country, the relief fund reaching a total of seven million dollars.

The Alabama Claims.—Much ill-feeling existed in the United States because Great Britain refused to pay for the property destroyed by the Alabama and other privateers fitted out in her ports. But the two governments finally appointed commissioners, who met at Washington and agreed that all claims of either nation against the other should be submitted to a board of arbitration. The board met at Geneva, Switzerland, and decided that Great Britain should pay the United States $15,500,000 in gold. This was much better than to go to war.

Re-Election of Grant.—In the presidential campaign of 1872, Grant was re-nominated for President, and Henry Wilson, of Massachusetts, was nominated for Vice-President by the Republicans. Horace Greeley, editor of the New York Tribune, was the leader of the Liberal Republicans and Democrats. Mr. Greeley was defeated, and died in less than a month, the nation losing one of its ablest and best men.



HORACE GREELEY.

Trouble with the Indians.—Early in Grant's second term there was trouble with the Modoc Indians on the southern border of Oregon. They had agreed to occupy a certain reservation, but refused to do so, and resisted the government forces sent to move them, taking refuge in old lava beds where they could hardly be reached. Men sent to treat with them were murdered. For this treachery the chiefs were tried and hanged. Three years later, General Custer, in command of the Seventh Cavalry, numbering about two hundred and fifty men, was sent to quell the Sioux Indians. He and his entire regiment were surrounded by the savages, and not a soul escaped. After fighting for a time, the Sioux, with their chiefs, Sitting Bull and Crazy Horse, escaped to Canada.

Business Failures.—The autumn of 1873 is noted for its many business failures. Banks closed their doors, factories shut down, every kind of business was at a standstill, and thousands of laborers were without work. Hard times continued for several years.

The Centennial Year.—To celebrate the nation's one hundredth birthday (1876) an International Exposition was held at Philadelphia. A tract of two hundred and thirty-six acres, a part of the beautiful Fairmount Park, was

selected as the site of the celebration. "The grounds were covered with a native growth of stately trees, thickets of brush and wild flowers." Walks and drives were laid out, bridges were built, and costly buildings erected. The rare products of all nations were gathered, people came from all lands, and ten million visitors were registered during the six months of the Exposition.

The Disputed Election.—Rutherford B. Hayes, Republican, of Ohio, Samuel J. Tilden, Democrat, of New York, and Peter Cooper, nominated by the Independent Greenback party, were the presidential candidates in the autumn of 1876. There was much excitement, and for some time both the Democrats and the Republicans claimed the election. It was said that frauds had been perpetrated in Oregon, South Carolina, Florida, and Louisiana, and Congress referred the matter to a committee of fifteen. After investigation, Hayes was declared elected.

Horace Greeley was born in Amherst, New Hampshire, February 3, 1811. His father was poor, and it was the task of Horace while a mere child to ride the horse to plough, to pick up stones in the hay-field, to watch the oxen as they fed on the grass near the corn-field, on frosty autumn mornings. He could read when but two years old, and at the age of ten had read every book he could borrow in the neighborhood. He always carried a book in his pocket to read when there was a spare moment. From the age of ten to fifteen he assisted his father in clearing new land, and in other hard labor on a New England farm. When about fifteen he became an apprentice to the printer of a weekly paper in Vermont, and soon learned the art of type-setting.

In 1831, Mr. Greeley went to New York to seek his fortune, reaching that city with only ten dollars in his purse, and a scanty stock of clothing in a bundle. He worked as a journeyman until 1833, when he began business on his own account, with a partner, issuing the Morning Post, the first penny daily paper ever published. In 1841, ten years from the time when he entered the great city, poor and unknown, Mr. Greeley issued the first number of the New York Tribune, which became one of the leading papers of the United States. As editor-in-chief of the Tribune, Mr. Greeley gained a world-wide fame. He filled several important public positions, was a public speaker of much note, and author of several works, among which are the following: Hints Towards Reforms; Glances at Europe; History of the Struggle for Slavery Extension; The American Conflict; and Recollections of a Busy Life.

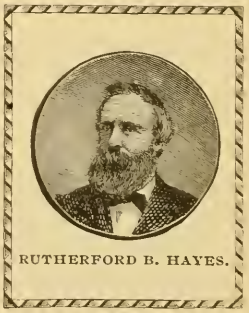
Topics.—Tell about—

1. The Union restored.
2. The two oceans joined.
3. The fifteenth amendment.
4. The Chicago fire.
5. The Alabama claims.
6. Re-election of Grant.
7. Horace Greeley.
8. Trouble with the Indians.
9. Business failures.
10. The Centennial year.
11. The disputed election.

Chapter XLVIII.

HAYES' ADMINISTRATION—1877-1881.

Troops at Elections.—There was considerable ill-feeling in the South on account of the presence of Federal troops at elections. Their presence had been thought necessary in order to secure a fair vote; but one of the first acts of President Hayes was to withdraw the troops, leaving the people free to manage their own affairs.



RUTHERFORD B. HAYES.

Railroad Riots.—On account of the continued hard times and lack of business, some of the railroads reduced the wages of those who were in their service, and this led to "strikes" and riots. On some routes trains were not allowed to run, and much railroad property was destroyed. The militia and government troops were called out to quell the riots. In Pittsburgh a hundred men lost their lives, and there was sharp fighting in Chicago and at other points (1877).

The Government Redeems Its Pledge.—To carry on the war required vast sums of money, and the government issued greenbacks, or paper money, promising to pay a dollar in gold for every paper dollar thus issued. As the government was pledged, this money was good, and for many years a piece of gold or silver was seldom seen in circulation. Government gave notice that, on the 1st of January, 1879, it would be ready to redeem its pledge, or "resume specie payment," and on that day the banks began to pay out both silver and gold coin, and specie, as it is called, again came into general use.

At the beginning of the Civil War, the government had no money in its treasury and its credit was below par. Salmon P. Chase, Secretary of the Treasury, planned measures which enabled the country to keep its armies in the field, even at a cost of six or seven hundred millions per annum. The people were furnished a currency which enabled them to pay their debts, and every branch of industry was stimulated. One of the measures of permanent importance to the country was the establishment of the national banking system, by which all notes issued were based on funded bonds of the government. This system was entirely originated by Mr. Chase.

Chinese Labor.—Chinese laborers had crossed the ocean, and for many years had been employed in building the Pacific and other lines of railway in California. When these roads were completed they began to engage in other work, and as they were willing to live on very little, they could work for lower wages than other laborers, and thus crowd them out of employment. This state of things caused a strong feeling in California against Chinese labor, and a new treaty was made with China by which immigration could be controlled by the United States.

The Telephone.—The speaking instrument called the telephone, now so generally used by business men, was first brought to public notice in 1877-78. A year later, when what was called the Silver Bill was before Congress, every step of the proceedings of that body was telephoned to the Treasury Department in Washington, and thence by telegraph to the President at the White House. This is said to have been the first public use of the telephone.

Election of Garfield.—General James A. Garfield, of Ohio, and Chester A. Arthur, of New York, Republican candidates for President and Vice-President, were chosen over General Winfield S. Hancock, of Pennsylvania, who had gained distinction in the Army of the Potomac, and William H. English, of Indiana, the Democratic nominees. The National Greenback-Labor party also had candidates in the field, but they received no electoral votes.

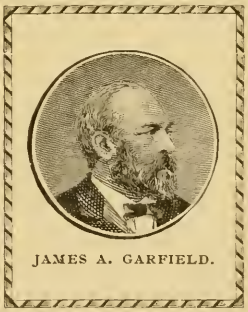
Topics.—Tell about—

1. Troops at elections.
2. Railroad riots.
3. The government redeeming its pledge.
4. Chinese labor.
5. Election of Garfield.

Chapter XLIX.

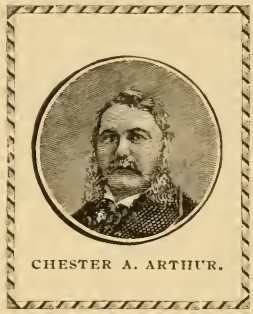
GARFIELD AND ARTHUR'S ADMINISTRATION—1881-1885.

Assassination of Garfield.—Everything promised well for the administration of President Garfield. The wounds of the Civil War were rapidly healing, and all parties had confidence in the honesty and wisdom of the man who stood at the head of the nation. But on the 2d of July, 1881, while the President was standing in a railway station at Washington, he was shot by Charles J. Guiteau, a villain whom he had refused to appoint to an office. The President lay upon a bed of pain until the 19th of September, when death came to his relief. All this time the entire nation watched for the news sent over the wires, and the deepest sympathy was felt by all classes.



JAMES A. GARFIELD.

Vice-President Arthur then became President, and, though suddenly called to this high position, he performed the duties of his office in such a manner as to win the respect of both parties.



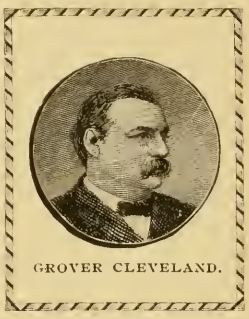
CHESTER A. ARTHUR.

Railroads, Standard Time, Etc.— During President Arthur's term the Northern Pacific Railroad, and the great bridge connecting New York and Brooklyn were completed (1883). The same year the principal railroads of the country divided the territory of the United States into four sections and established "standard time" for each. On the 21st of February, 1885, the Washington Monument, erected to the memory of Washington, was completed and dedicated. The corner-stone was laid thirty-seven years before. The monument is five hundred and fifty-five feet high, and seventy-five feet square at the base.

Civil Service Reform.— President Jackson thought that the public offices of the government should be filled by the political friends of the administration, and hundreds of well-qualified men were turned out of office by him to make room for party favorites. In this way, Jackson introduced what is known as the principle of rotation in office, and presidents since that time have followed his example.

In 1871, Congress passed a law to put a stop to this practice, but the law became a dead letter, until Arthur urged a reform, and a strict civil service reform bill was passed by Congress (1883), under which a board of examiners is appointed to test the qualifications of all applicants. This, it was hoped, would lead to the selection of the best men, without regard to party, but the law has not been strictly enforced.

Election of Cleveland.—In 1884 the Republican standard bearers were James G. Blaine, of Maine, and General John A. Logan, of Illinois. The former had gained distinction in Congress, the latter was honored as a gallant soldier. The Democratic candidates were Grover Cleveland, of New York, and Thomas A. Hendricks, of Indiana. The People's party put up Benjamin F. Butler, of Massachusetts, and A. M. West, of Mississippi. The Prohibition party, John P. St. John, of Kansas, and William Daniel, of Maryland. There was great excitement during the campaign, but the Democrats won the victory, and the party came into power for the first time in twenty-four years.



GROVER CLEVELAND.

Topics.—Tell about—

1. Assassination of Garfield.
2. Vice-President Arthur.
3. Railroads—standard time—Washington Monument.
4. Civil service reform.
5. Election of Cleveland.

Chapter L.

CLEVELAND'S FIRST ADMINISTRATION—1885-1889.

In his inaugural address, President Cleveland spoke in favor of civil service reform, and asked all to lay aside prejudice, and give a warm support to the government.

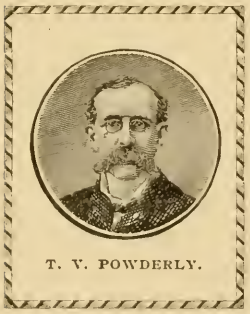
Death of General Grant. — General Grant, who had for a long time suffered from a painful disease, died at Mount McGregor, New York, on the 23d of July (1885). Though his strength was constantly failing, he bore up

manfully, and spent his last days in completing the story of his life, which he was preparing for the press. The great soldier and leader of our armies was laid to rest in Riverside Park, New York City. The President of the United States and officers of government, the governors of states, and distinguished citizens from all parts of the country attended the funeral to do honor to his name.

The Anarchists.—In May (1886), a terrible riot occurred in Chicago. A large number of men were incited by hand-bills, and by speeches of foreign Anarchists to destroy property and commit other acts of violence. In quelling the mob, seven policemen were killed, eleven were crippled for life, and twelve were seriously injured. The leading Anarchists were arrested and tried, and eight of them were found guilty of murder.

Labor Strikes.—In the early part of 1886 numerous labor strikes took place. In many cases the differences between workingmen and their employers were settled by arbitration, and the strikes very soon came to an end. In other cases differences were not settled for a long time, and, as thousands were out of employment, there was much suffering. In the end, the laborers were often compelled to yield in order to save their wives and children from want.

The Eight-Hour Movement.—On the 1st of May, what is known as the eight-hour movement took place. It was thought that eight hours' labor should make a day's work. To help on the movement an immense meeting of the trades unions was held in New York; and forty thousand workmen, mostly lumbermen, brick-layers, freight-handlers, iron-workers, and factory hands, went out on a strike, in Chicago. The labor organizations of St. Louis, Baltimore, Boston, and other cities also made a strong movement to secure the same end. In many instances the strikes were brought to a close without serious trouble, but in others there was much difficulty and dissatisfaction.



T. V. POWDERLY.

Labor Organizations.—As early as November, 1869, Uriah S. Stephens, a clothing cutter of Philadelphia, formed a society for the protection and improvement of working people. For some time its name and work were kept a secret, but the order grew among the laborers of Philadelphia until nearly every trade was represented. It soon sprung up in Pittsburgh, and was joined by most of

the coal and iron workers. In 1878 a General Assembly of North America was formed, with a General Master Workman, Terrence V. Powderly, at its head. The organization now extends over all parts of the country, and includes workers of every trade. The motto of the Knights of Labor is, "An injury to one is the concern of all."

An Earthquake.—In August (1886), the shock of an earthquake was felt in the United States from the Mississippi to the Atlantic. It was most severe in Charleston, South Carolina, where yawning cracks were opened in the earth, and many buildings were thrown down, crushing the terrified people as they fled from their homes. The shock continued at intervals for thirty-six hours. Again, as in the case of Chicago, helping hands were extended, and expressions of sympathy came from all directions.

The Fisheries.—The question of the fisheries along the coast of Canada caused a good deal of trouble. By the provisions of an expired treaty between the United States and Great Britain, American fishermen were not allowed to catch, cure, or dry fish within three miles of the Canadian coast. "They were permitted to enter bays and harbors only for the purpose of shelter, of repairing damages, of purchasing wood, and of procuring water." The Canadians seized a number of American fishing vessels, charged with violations of this old law, and, in several instances, fines were imposed. This caused much feeling in the United States, and, at length, an international commission was appointed to settle the difficulty, but the treaty framed by this commission was rejected by the Senate, and no settlement was made during Cleveland's administration.

The Tariff Question.—The tariff question again became a leading one. From the early days of the government statesmen have differed in opinion on this subject. Some

have favored making duties on foreign products high enough to protect the manufacturers of like products at home. Those who held this view were said to favor a "protective tariff." Others would levy a tariff sufficient to pay the expenses of government—a tariff for revenue only. Others still were in favor of free trade with all nations. "Buy where you can buy the cheapest," was their motto.

For some time the tariff had remained so high that the revenue had accumulated until there was a large sum lying idle in the treasury. The people demanded a reduction of the tariff, and this became the chief question in the presidential campaign of 1888, at the close of which General Benjamin Harrison, Republican, was elected over Grover Cleveland. The question of temperance also received much attention, and a candidate for the presidency was nominated by the Prohibition party, but he did not succeed in carrying any of the states.

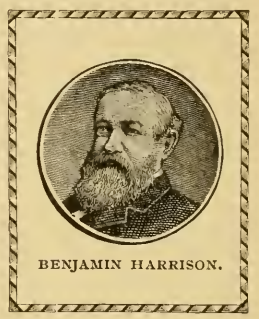
Topics.—Tell of—

1. Death of General Grant.
2. The Anarchists.
3. Labor strikes.
4. The eight-hour movement.
5. Labor organizations.
6. Earthquake at Charleston.
7. The fisheries.
8. The tariff question.
9. Election of Harrison.

Chapter LI.

HARRISON'S ADMINISTRATION—1889-1893.

The One Hundredth Anniversary.—The celebration of the one hundredth anniversary of Washington's inauguration as President took place on the 30th of April (1889). Throughout the land the people assembled in groves and halls to honor the name of Washington and commemorate the great event. But the grandest celebration was in New York, where, as we have learned, Washington was inaugurated. The city was decorated with flags and bunting; triumphal arches spanned the principal streets; over a million people witnessed a procession of forty thousand troops under review by President Harrison, and a grand civic and industrial parade, with thousands of pupils from the public schools in the ranks.



BENJAMIN HARRISON.

Oklahoma (The Beautiful Country) is the Indian name of a region in the center of the Indian Territory in which the Whites were not allowed to settle. The Indian title having been gradually acquired by the government, the President issued a proclamation (1889) throwing this region open to settlement. Many thousands of emigrants had, in anticipation of the proclamation, encamped about the border of Indian Territory, and, when the hour for opening arrived, rushed madly to secure favorable locations in the new land; towns sprang into existence in a single night, and within a month a wilderness had assumed the garb of civilization. In 1890 the territory of Oklahoma was organized to include

the whole western half of Indian Territory, but the "Cherokee Strip" in the northern part of the new territory was not thrown open to settlement till the fall of 1893.

A Great Disaster.—On the 31st of May, in Western Pennsylvania occurred an appalling disaster. Rains had swollen the streams, when a dam across the South Fork of the Conemaugh gave way, releasing the waters of a large reservoir. The flood rushed down the narrow valley, sweeping everything before it. Over five thousand people whose homes were in the city of Johnstown or in villages along the Conemaugh were ingulfed by the waters or buried in the ruins. The sympathy of the whole country was aroused; and food, clothing, and money were promptly forwarded to relieve the thousands of sufferers saved from the flood.

The Columbian Exposition.—To celebrate the four hundredth anniversary of the landing of Columbus (Oct. 12, 1492), a great world's fair was held in Chicago. The dedicatory exercises took place Oct. 23, 1892, with two hundred and fifty thousand people on the grounds; but, in order that all might be in readiness, it was found necessary to defer the formal opening of the Exposition to May 1, 1893. From then till September the grounds were thronged daily by thousands of men, women and children, the total number admitted being more than twenty million.

A New Tariff.—Republicans claimed that the protective policy of the government had been sustained at the general election of 1888; and, as a revision of the tariff was expected by the people at large, a new tariff bill was introduced by McKinley of Ohio, which, after prolonged discussion, was passed by Congress (1890). Under the provisions of the McKinley Bill, some leading articles, including foreign sugar, were admitted free; but on many other articles the duty was raised.

A Silver Bill.—A strong party favored the free coinage of silver, and the currency question in all its phases was widely

discussed. After protracted debate, Congress passed a silver bill (1890), since known as the Sherman Bill, requiring the government to purchase 4,500,000 ounces of silver every month, or so much thereof as might be offered, to be paid for in treasury notes redeemable in coin. These treasury notes were made legal tender for all debts, public and private. Out of the silver bullion thus bought, the government was to coin so much as might be necessary to redeem the treasury notes. By a provision of the bill, gold and silver were to be maintained at a parity of value, so that a silver dollar and a gold dollar should have the same purchasing power. The bill was in the nature of a compromise, not fully satisfying any party, and it was soon seen that it would be likely to lead to financial disaster.

Seal Fisheries.—For several years there had been a dispute between the United States and Great Britain regarding the killing of seals in Bering Sea. Both governments finally agreed to settle their differences by arbitration; and a treaty setting forth the conditions of arbitration was ratified by the Senate of the United States (1892). The Board of Arbitration consisted of seven members, France, Italy, and Sweden each furnishing one, Great Britain two, and the United States, two. This mode of settling the dispute met the approval of all parties.

Chinese Exclusion.—On the Pacific coast a strong public sentiment demanded the exclusion of the Chinese. It was argued that they never become citizens of the United States; that they do not adopt our customs; that they come in competition with other laborers who cannot work for the low wages paid Chinamen. Those who opposed this demand contended that in excluding the Chinese the government would violate a solemn treaty with China; cut off trade with that country; and deny Chinamen a privilege given the

people of all other lands. The sentiment in favor of exclusion culminated in the passage by Congress (1892) of "An Act to prohibit the coming of Chinese persons into the United States." The first of May, 1892, was set for the removal of all Chinamen who, under the provisions of this act, were not entitled to remain.

New States.—Washington, South Dakota, North Dakota, and Montana became members of the Union in 1889; Idaho and Wyoming, in 1890; bringing the number of states up to forty-four. In Wyoming and Idaho, and also in Colorado and Utah women have full suffrage.

Political Parties.—In the presidential contest of 1892 there were five political parties. The Republicans renominated Benjamin Harrison. Grover Cleveland was nominated by the Democrats; James B. Weaver, by the People's Party; John Bidwell, by the National Prohibition Party; and Simon Wing, by the Socialistic Labor Party. The tariff, the currency, temperance, capital and labor, were the chief questions discussed. The Democrats gained an overwhelming victory, electing Cleveland, and securing full control of Congress.

Topics.—Tell about—

1. The one hundredth anniversary.
2. Oklahoma.
3. A great disaster.
4. The Columbian Exposition.
5. A new tariff.
6. A silver bill.
7. Seal fisheries.
8. Chinese exclusion.
9. New states.
10. Political Parties.

CHAPTER LII.

CLEVELAND'S SECOND ADMINISTRATION—1893–1897.

The distinction belongs to President Cleveland of having been the only Ex-President of the United States ever recalled to the Presidential Chair.

The Bering Sea Arbitrators reached a decision in August, 1893. The decision was technically adverse to the United States, but it provided for the protection of the fur seals.

Acts of Congress.—Early in 1893 great quantities of gold were exported, and a financial panic ensued which caused much distress. Many people thought the trouble was due to the purchase of silver under the Sherman Act, and Congress in special session passed a law stopping these purchases. At the following regular session the Wilson-Gorman tariff bill was passed, imposing duties which were on the average lower than the McKinley rates. An income tax was also provided for, but this was declared unconstitutional by the Supreme Court.

A Great Railroad Strike in Chicago and other western cities in 1894 interfered very greatly with the business of the country. It did not come to an end till after United States troops were sent to Chicago to restore order.

The St. Louis Tornado.—In May, 1896, the most destructive tornado on record passed through the cities of St. Louis, Missouri, and East St. Louis, Illinois. Thousands of buildings were blown down or damaged, and nearly five hundred people were killed in the two cities and other places in the path of the storm.

The Venezuela Dispute.—Near the end of 1895 the President interposed in a boundary dispute between Great Britain and Venezuela, thus extending somewhat the scope of the Monroe doctrine (p. 169). His action led to the signing, in

1897, of a treaty providing for the establishment of the boundary by arbitration.

Utah, the forty-fifth state, was admitted in 1896.

Politics.—In 1896 the Democrats nominated William J. Bryan, as did also the People's Party, on a platform demanding the free coinage of silver. The Republicans, however, declared in favor of maintaining the gold standard of money, and were successful in electing William McKinley President, and Garret A. Hobart Vice-President.

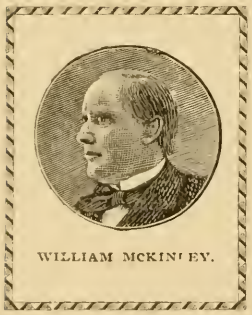
Topics.—Tell about—

1. The Bering Sea arbitration.
2. Two acts of Congress.
3. The Chicago railroad strike.
4. The St. Louis tornado.
5. The Venezuela dispute.
6. A new state.
7. The election of McKinley.

CHAPTER LIII.

McKINLEY'S ADMINISTRATION—1897—

Acts of Congress.—At a special session in 1897, Congress passed a new tariff law to secure more revenue and greater protection. In 1900 it passed an act establishing the gold standard more firmly than before. It also imposed stamp taxes and in other ways raised the money used in the wars that were fought during this term.



WILLIAM McKINLEY.

The War with Spain. — For many years Cuba had suffered from Spanish misrule, when in 1895 the last of several rebellions broke out there. For three years Spain tried cruelly but in vain to crush the rebel Cubans. In February, 1898, the American battleship Maine was blown up by a mine in Havana harbor, where the Span-

iards were in control. War with the United States followed upon Spain's refusal to withdraw from Cuba.

In the Philippines Commodore George Dewey destroyed the Spanish fleet in the brilliant battle of Manila Bay, May 1; and just at the end of the war, the city of Manila was captured by Dewey's ships and an army that had been sent thither from our Pacific coast. In the West Indies a Spanish fleet took refuge in the harbor of Santiago (*sahn te ah' go*). The city of Santiago was then besieged by a United States army under General W. F. Shafter. The Spanish fleet tried to escape (July 3) but was destroyed by our ships under Admiral W. T. Sampson and Commodore W. S. Schley. Santiago was soon surrendered to us, and General Nelson A. Miles had begun the conquest of Porto Rico, when Spain asked for peace and orders were given to stop fighting (August 12). By the final treaty of peace, ratified early in 1899, Spain withdrew from Cuba and ceded Porto Rico and the Philippines to the United States, which in turn paid Spain $20,000,000.

Annexation of Hawaii.—Another group of islands annexed in 1898 is the Hawaiian Islands. These were taken at the request of their own government, and in 1900 were made a regular Territory.

War in the Philippines.—Early in 1899 some of the Filipinos began an insurrection against the United States; but they were defeated and scattered in many battles, and our troops occupied the entire archipelago.

Politics.—In 1900, the leading presidential candidates were again W. J. Bryan and William McKinley, and McKinley was reëlected. Theodore Roosevelt was elected Vice-President.

Topics.—Tell about—

1. Three things done by Congress.
2. Causes of the war with Spain.
3. The chief battles of the war.
4. Annexation of Hawaii.
5. The Philippine insurrection.
6. The reëlection of McKinley.

Chapter LIV.

GROWTH OF THE COUNTRY.

Territorial Growth.—When Washington was inaugurated, the United States extended west only to the Mississippi and south only to Florida. Its area was but little over eight hundred thousand square miles. Our country now stretches from the Gulf to the Great Lakes, from ocean to ocean, and includes Alaska and many islands besides. Its area is over three and a half million square miles.

Population.—The first census, taken in 1790, gave less than four million inhabitants, most of whom occupied a narrow belt along the Atlantic. The largest city (Philadelphia) had a population of forty-two thousand. The whole region west of the Alleghanies was a wilderness, with a few trading posts and scattered settlements, mostly south of the Ohio, in Kentucky and Tennessee. The site of Chicago was a flat, unbroken prairie without a white inhabitant; Cincinnati was a log fort, with a few huts; St. Louis, a mere trading post held by Spain; New Orleans, also Spanish, had over five thousand people and was the only city in the Mississippi Valley.

The population of the United States is now more than seventy-five millions, and more than half the cities of over twenty-five thousand inhabitants are west of the Alleghanies.

Resources.—A century ago the natural resources of the country were undeveloped. Little iron was produced, stone coal had not come into use, petroleum was unknown, gas was not used for fuel or light, and most of the salt was made by boiling sea-water. Nothing could have been known of the vast deposits of coal and iron now so exten-

sively mined in different portions of the country then unexplored; and it was near the middle of the century before any one dreamed of the treasures of gold, silver, and other metals hidden in the Rocky Mountains and in the regions beyond.

Agriculture.—The first iron plow was not patented until 1787, and it is said that some farmers refused to use it because they feared it would poison the ground. Many years passed before the steel plow, the horse hoe, reaping and threshing machines were invented and brought into general use. The farms of those early days were small, were tilled with great labor, and the entire wheat crop of the thirteen colonies could not have equaled the surplus now raised in either of the new wheat-growing states.

The first shipment of cotton to England, only seven bags, was made in 1747. The country has since grown more than seven million bales in a year. The countless market-gardens and orchards on the Atlantic seaboard, the immense corn and wheat fields of the Mississippi Valley, the stock ranches on the plains and in the mountain valleys from Canada to Texas, the magnificent orchards, groves, and vineyards of the Pacific States, are illustrations of the triumphs of enterprise in different fields of labor.

Manufactures.—A century ago, the spinning-wheel and the hand-loom were found in every farm-house; wool carding, spinning, and weaving occupied a large part of the housewife's time. Washington, when addressing the first Congress, wore a woolen suit presented by a factory established the preceding year. The first carpet factory was built some years later. In our day the factories of the country have worked up more than one thousand million pounds of cotton, and four hundred million pounds of wool, in a year.

American pressed glass, now found in every household, is an invention of the last sixty years. Silk manufacture as a great industry is not yet fifty years old. The paper of a hundred years ago would hardly be thought fit for use in our times, and rubber goods of any description were unknown in the days of our fathers. The manufacture of boots, shoes, clothing, iron, and woolen goods by machinery is due to inventions since 1800. Before that date, and for many years afterwards, nearly everything was made by hand; now, machinery of every description has taken the place of hand labor, and thousands of articles unknown fifty years ago are manufactured and have come into general use.

Labor—Wages.—The greatness of a country is best shown by the condition of its laboring classes. Down to the close of the Civil War a large portion of the labor of the country was performed by slaves; now, every laborer is a free man. This is an immense gain. In Massachusetts, a century ago, masons received sixty-seven cents a day; carpenters, fifty-two cents; blacksmiths, seventy cents; and ordinary laborers without trades, thirty cents. In 1800, on the Pennsylvania canals, diggers were paid $6 a month from May to November, and $5 a month from November to May. From 1793 to 1800, hod-carriers, mortar-mixers, diggers, and choppers, who labored on the public buildings and graded the streets of Washington, received $70 a year, the hours of work being from sunrise to sunset.

Wages at Albany and New York were forty cents a day; at Lancaster, Pennsylvania, from $8 to $10 a month; elsewhere in the state workmen were glad to get $6 in summer and $5 in winter. At Baltimore, common laborers were paid thirty to thirty-five cents a day; in Virginia, white men, employed by the year, were given sixteen

pounds in currency, worth $53.28. Out of this small sum the workman, with his wife's help, had to maintain his family. Within the memory of many now living, able-bodied farm laborers were paid from $8 to $10 a month through the season; hired girls, from fifty cents to $1 a week; carpenters, from $1 to $1.50 a day; male teachers in district schools, from $12 to $15 a month; female teachers, from seventy-five cents to $1 a week.

In Boston, a century ago, pork was quoted at sixteen cents per pound, flour at $8.16 per barrel, corn at seventy-six cents per bushel, and ham at twenty cents a pound. Calico cost fifty-eight cents a yard; cotton cloth, eighty-eight cents; tow cloth, thirty cents; buckram, twenty cents, and broadcloth, $2.70. Stockings were $1.35 a pair; buttons, from one to five shillings a dozen, and corded Nankeen breeches, $5.50 a pair. Sugar was from fifteen to twenty-two cents a pound.

When compared with present wages and prices, these figures show that laborers now live more easily than of old. Although there are many wrongs to be righted, many burdens to be taken from their shoulders, the laboring men of the nation have more comfortable homes, are better fed and clothed than in the early days of the Republic.

Transportation.— In the early days there were neither railroads nor steamboats. Away from the streams, farm products and merchandise were conveyed in wagons, over rough roads, at great expense. This made settlement difficult and farming unprofitable, save in the vicinity of navigable waters. In 1830, there were but twenty-three miles of railroad in the United States. Trunk lines now stretch from ocean to ocean, all parts of the country are joined by iron bands, and steamers everywhere plow our lakes and rivers. The rail-car and the steamboat made the set-

tlement of the Mississippi Valley and the vast region to the west comparatively easy. Steam moves the products of our farms, our orchards, our forests, our mines, and our manufactories. It has entirely changed the mode of living.

Modes of Travel.—Footmen with packs on their backs are no longer seen setting out for the far West; the Methodist minister and the learned judge no longer make their circuits on horseback; the bride of to-day does not ride to her new home mounted behind her husband on a horse. The one-horse chaise, with its heavy wooden springs, has disappeared, and the lumbering stage coach in which Washington made long journeys is seen only in sparsely settled regions. The emigrant has left his huge covered wagon behind, a shell on the strand, and is speeding on the cars to his new home.

Until within the last thirty years few people could afford to make long journeys. Now, everybody travels. Friends visit friends near and far; pleasure-seekers and health-seekers crowd the summer and winter resorts, borne thither by palace cars. Men of business from all parts of the country are seen at the centers of trade. Men and women from homes far apart are gathered in conventions to discuss great questions in which all have an interest. Every year the people of the different sections of our country are becoming better acquainted; prejudice is giving way; the bonds of friendship and of trade are being strengthened; and the walls which have separated the East from the West, the North from the South, are crumbling. The Union is growing stronger. To the railroad, the steamboat, the telegraph, and the telephone we are mainly indebted for this new order of things.

Post-Offices.—When the first general census of the United States was taken, in the summer of 1790, the whole num-

ber of post-offices was seventy-five. There were but five mails a week between New York and Philadelphia, and but three a week in summer and two in winter between New York and Boston. The entire length of postal routes was eighteen hundred and seventy-five miles. In 1816 the rates of letter postage were fixed at six and a quarter cents, ten cents, eighteen and three-quarter cents, and twenty-five cents, according to distance, and four times these rates if the letter weighed over an ounce. At the present time there are over sixty-seven thousand post-offices, and the total length of routes is nearly four hundred and forty-eight thousand miles.

Education and Literature.—Our fathers were believers in the education of the people, and the log school-house became a necessary part of every settlement. Academies, seminaries, and colleges were founded even in the early days when the colonies were poor. The common school system of New York was established in 1795. The Ordinance of 1787 set apart section sixteen in every township for the support of schools. In 1848, section thirty-six was also set aside, so that the newer states have two school sections in every township. In all, over one hundred and forty million acres of land have been devoted to school purposes in the different states.

In 1891, there were in the United States over 223,000 public schools, with a total enrollment of 12,728,417 pupils. Every year shows a considerable increase in the number of schools and pupils, especially in the newer states and territories, and in the South, where the work of educating the children of the blacks is being carried forward with commendable energy. In addition to the common schools, schools of law, medicine, and theology, there were, in 1888, three hundred and sixty-one colleges and universities.

In colonial times there were few American books, few libraries, and hundreds of homes were without books. The school-books used even fifty years ago would have a strange and forbidding appearance to-day. There were no beautifully illustrated readers, geographies, or histories, such as the great publishing houses are now sending out by thousands. Books of nearly every description have multiplied, and they are now brought within the reach of all classes. At the beginning of the Revolution there were but thirty-seven newspapers in the colonies. There are now issued over 17,500 newspapers and periodicals, reaching millions of homes.

Philanthropic and Reform Work.—The spirit of the people is shown in the large number of associations designed to aid the poor and unfortunate of every class. Hospitals and asylums are multiplying in all the cities, and schools for defectives are supported in the several states. The spirit of reform has extended to prisons and insane asylums, and the treatment of the inmates of these institutions is much more humane than formerly. Organizations designed to promote temperance, to keep alive the spirit of patriotism, to guard the interests of labor, are found everywhere, and there is a growing desire to elevate the moral condition of mankind, to bring in the reign of peace and good-will.

Topics.—Tell about—

1. Territorial growth.
2. Population.
3. Resources.
4. Agriculture.
5. Manufactures.
6. Labor—wages.
7. Transportation.
8. Modes of travel—Post-offices.
9. Education and literature.
10. Philanthropic and reform work.

TOPICS FOR REVIEW.

Historic Names.—Tell what you can of the persons whose names are given below:

Lincoln, 205-245.
Gen. Scott, 206, 209,
G'n. Beauregard, 206, 217
Maj. Anderson, 206.
John B. Floyd, 207.
Davis, 207, 236, 245.
McClellan, 209-'21-'4-'42
Gen. Rosecrans, 209, 225.
Gen. McDowell, 209.
Gen. Baker, 212.
Gen. Lyon, 212.
J. C. Fremont, 212, 226.
Gen. Halleck, 212.
Mason and Slidell, 215.
Gen. Grant, 217-245, 259-
Com. Foote, 217 [262, '67
Gen. A. S. Johnston, 217.
Gen. Buell, 217, 225.
Adm. Farragut, 219, 241.
Gen. Butler, 219, 239, 267
Gen. Burnside, 219, 228.
Com. Goldsborough, 220.
Lieut. Worden, 221.
Capt. Ericsson, 221.
J. E. Johnston 222, '36, '43
Gen. Lee, 222-244.
Gen. Jackson, 222-228.
Gen. Shields, 223.
Gen. Pope, 223.
Gen. Sherman, 225-243.
Com. Porter, 225, 235.
Gen. Sibley, 226.
Gen. Hooker, 228.
Gen. Meade, 229, 236.
Gen. Pickett, 229-231.
Gen. Pemberton, 232-'3.
Gen. Banks, 233-'5.
Gen. Thomas, 233-237.
Adm. Dupont, 234.
Col. Bailey, 235.
Gen. Forrest, 236.
Gen. Hood, 237.
Gen. Sheridan, 239.
Gen. Early, 239.
Capt. Semmes, 241.
Capt. Winslow, 241.
A. Johnson, 242, '55-'6.
Gen. Pendleton, 242.
Gen. Gilmore, 242.
Gen. Hardee, 243.
Gen. Terry, 243.
Gen. Warren, 244.
J. W. Booth, 244.
Col. Pritchard, 245.
Dorothea L. Dix, 251.
Mary A. Livermore, 251.
Jane C. Hoge, 251.
Mary J. Safford, 252.
Cordelia A. Harvey, 252.
Mary A. Bickerdyke, 252.
Gen. Howard, 256.
W. H. Seward, 257.
Cyrus W. Field, 257.
Horatio Seymour, 259.
Schuyler Colfax, 259.
Henry Wilson, 261.
Horace Greeley, 261-262.
Gen. Custer, 261.
R. B. Hayes, 262-263.
S. J. Tilden, 262.
Peter Cooper, 262.
Salmon P. Chase, 264.
J. A. Garfield, 265.
C. A. Arthur, 265-266.
Gen. W. S. Hancock, 265.
W. H. English, 265.
J. G. Blaine, 267.
Gen. Logan, 267.
G. Cleveland, 267-75.
T. A. Hendricks, 267.
J. P. St. John, 267.
U. S. Stephens, 268.
Benj. Harrison, 270-'4.
J. B. Weaver, 274.
W. McKinley, 272, 276.
George Dewey, 277.
T. Roosevelt, 277.

Historic Places.—Locate the places named, and tell what you can of the events with which they were connected:

Fort Pickens, 205.
Fort Sumter, 205-'6, 242.
Harper's Ferry, 207.
Baltimore, 208.
Arlington Heights, 208
Alexandria, 208.
Big Bethel, 209.
Bull Run, 209-223.
Ball's Bluff, 212.
Wilson's Creek, 212.
Hatteras Inlet, 212.
Pt. Royal Entrance, 212.
Forts Henry and Donelson, 217.
New Orleans, 219.
Shiloh—Pittsburgh Landing, 217.
Hampton Roads, 220.
Yorktown, 222.
Williamsburg, 222.
Fair Oaks 222.
Shenandoah Valley, 222,
Malvern Hills, 223. [239.
Antietam, 223.
Fredericksburg, 224.
Iuka and Corinth, 225.
Vicksburg, 225, 232.
Murfreesboro, 225.
Mankato, 226.
Chancellorsville, 228.
Gettysburg, 229.
Port Hudson, 233.
Chickamauga, 233.
Chattanooga, 233.
Orchard Knob, 234.
Lookout Mountain, 234.
Missionary Ridge, 234.
Charleston, 234.
Fort Pillow, 236.
Atlanta, 236.
Nashville, 237.
Rapidan, 238.
Spottsylvania, 238.
Cold Harbor, 238.
Petersburg, 239.

Mobile, 241.	Belle Isle, 248.	Pittsburgh, 263.
Richmond, 244.	Alaska, 157.	Mount McGregor, 267.
Appomattox C. H., 244.	Ogden, 260.	Oklahoma, 271.
Macon, 245.	Chicago, 260, 263.	Conemaugh, 272.
Andersonville, 248.	Philadelphia, 261.	St. Louis, 275.

General Topics.—Tell what you can of the following:

CHAPTER XL.—Lincoln's administration. XLI.—Events of 1862. XLII.—Events of 1863. XLIII.—Events of 1864. XLIV.—Close of the war, 1865. XLV.—Other matters relating to the war. XLVI.—Johnson's administration, 1865-1869. XLVII.—Grant's administration, 1869-1877. XLVIII.—Hayes' administration, 1877-1881. XLIX.—Garfield and Arthur's aministration, 1881-1885. L.—Cleveland's administration, 1885-1889. LI.—Harrison's administration, 1889-1893. LII.—Cleveland's Second Administration, 1893-1897. LIII.—McKinley's Administration, 1897—. LIV.—Growth of the country.

TEST QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES.

The questions and exercises that follow will stimulate thought, deepen the lessons which history is expected to teach, and lead to further research. They should be given to the class from day to day as the subjects to which they relate come up for study. Answers should not be required until pupils have had ample time for reflection — to look the matter up. The wise teacher will not fail to lengthen the list, to test his pupils at every step.

1.—What portions of the earth were known to the people of Europe when Columbus set out on his first voyage?

2.—Before the days of Columbus, why had people learned so little of the geography of the earth?

3.—Name some inventions which did much to make men more familiar with the geography of the earth.

4.—What goods do the people of the United States receive from the East Indies, China, and Japan?

5.—On the map or globe, trace the principal routes by which goods are brought from the Indies.

6.—What important events took place on a day which some people regard as unlucky?

7.—State what object each of the leading discoverers and explorers had in view.

8.—Name the discoverers and explorers who found what they were seeking.

9.—How many routes were there to India after the discovery of a new route by Da Gama? Which was the longer? The cheaper?

10.—Name the discoverers and explorers who appear most worthy of high honor.

11.—How many years from the discovery of San Salvador to the settlement of Jamestown?

12.—How many years from the coming of the Pilgrims to the coming of Oglethorpe?

13.—How many years from the settlement of Jamestown to the settlement of Quebec?

14.—What right had the people of Europe to lands occupied by the Indians?

15.—What is meant by "the right of discovery?"

16.—Name the colonial leaders who took pains to pay the Indians for their lands.

17.—Give the origin of the name of each of the thirteen colonies.

18.—Which colonies were founded by men who had a noble end in view?

19.—Why were all the early settlements near the seashore or on navigable rivers?

20.—Among the colonial leaders, whom do you most admire? Why?

21.—In which colonies was religious freedom allowed to all?

22.—In which colonies were the people allowed to hold assemblies for making their own laws?

23.—Which colonies took the most pains to establish schools and colleges?

24.—What colleges now in existence were founded in colonial days?

25.—Were the Indians injured or benefited by associating with their white neighbors? In what ways?

26.—Why was slavery more profitable in the southern colonies than in the northern?

27.—Why did many villages spring up in some colonies and few in others?

28.—Name some of the first articles exported by the several colonies.

29.—Why were slaves not taught to read and write?

30.—Were the punishments in colonial days more or less severe than the punishments in these times?

31.—What sports were common in the southern colonies, which were unknown in New England?

32.—What two classes of Frenchmen explored the region of the Great Lakes and the Mississippi Valley?

33.—What nation took great pains to convert the Indians?

34.—Why did the Indians like the French better than they liked the English?

35.—On what ground did the French claim the region drained by the St. Lawrence and the Mississippi?

36.—What, besides "discovery," was needed to hold possession of a country in those days?

37.—What natural boundaries separated the settlements of the English from the settlements of the French?

38.—What is indicated by the names Detroit, Vincennes, Kaskaskia, St. Louis, and New Orleans, found on the map, page 136?

39.—What states are now included in the territory surrendered by the French at the close of the French and Indian War? (*See map, page 87.*)

40.—Why was there more of the spirit of freedom in America than in England before the Revolution?

41.—Why did England wish to restrict manufactures in her own colonies?

42.—Does our government lay duties on exports?

43.—Was it right that the colonists should be taxed by the mother country?

44.—What is meant by, "Taxation without representation is tyranny?"

45.—What is meant by, "Every man's house is his castle?"

46.—What were stamps? Have stamps been used by our own government?

47.—How many unions of the colonies had been attempted before the Revolution?

48.—In what way had the long French and Indian War prepared the colonists for the Revolution?

49.—Name some of the things said in the Declaration of Independence.

50.—Why do we celebrate the Fourth of July?

51.—What is it to be a patriot? Name the most noted patriots of the Revolutionary period.

52.—What was it to be a tory in those days?

53.—Has the Declaration of Independence been changed since the days of '76?

54.—Is the Constitution the same as when adopted?

55.—In what battles of the Revolution were the patriots victorious?

56.—What is meant by a "decisive battle?" What decisive battles were fought?

57.—What is treason?

58.—Was Major André a bad man? Why did not the kind-hearted Washington save André?

59.—What may the United States government do which a state government may not do?

60.—Are all men, women, and children born in this country citizens?

61.—Which was stronger, the government under the Articles of Confederation, or under the Constitution? Why?

62.—Name the most important invention of the eighteenth century.

63.—Before the Revolution, how were the churches supported?

64.—Why are churches not supported by our government? Are churches and church property taxed?

65.—What is meant by a strong central government?

66.—Why did the Democrats, in Jefferson's day, fear a strong central government?

67.—Why was the possession of the entire Mississippi River of great importance to the United States?

68.—What states have been formed out of the Louisiana purchase? (*See map, page 150.*)

69.—In which of the territorial acquisitions is your state situated?

70.—What is meant by "claiming the right of search?"

71.—With what great power was England contending at the time she was impressing American seamen?

72.—What great advantages grew out of the War of 1812?

73.—What manufacturing city sprung up soon after the War of 1812?

74.—Why did the people of New England oppose the war?

75.—How does a protective tariff help home manufactures?

76.—What is the difference between a "privateer" and a "pirate?"

77.—What is meant by the "era of good feeling?"

78.—Why did the people of New England engage in manufacturing, the people of the South in cotton-planting, the people of the West in grain-raising and stock-growing?

79.—What is a patent, and how is an inventor benefited by it?

80.—Why did the cotton-gin, the spinning-jenny, and the power-loom make men look more favorably upon slavery?

81.—Had the people of the North any interest in slavery since its abolition in the Northern States?

82.—How many of the presidents have been from the South?

83.—Which state has been called the "Mother of Presidents?"

84.—What did Jackson mean by saying, "To the victors belong the spoils?"

85.—Should competent men be removed from office to make room for political favorites?

86.—What is the object of the "Civil Service" law?

87.—How was it that new states south of the Ohio had slaves, while those north had none?

88.—Why were the people of South Carolina opposed to the tariff?

89.—Why were Garrison and his followers called Abolitionists?

90.—Why were Abolitionists mobbed at the South?

91.—In what direction is immigration moving to-day? Along what lines of railroad?

92.—How was the present territory of the United States obtained? (*See map, page 150.*)

93.—Who were the great statesmen of the first half of this century? Who are the leading statesmen of to-day?

94.—Why was Fremont called the Pathfinder?

95.—How many modes of travel are represented in the picture on page 164?

96.—Name some of the poems of Whittier; of Bryant; of Longfellow; of Holmes; of Poe. Name some of the works of Cooper; of Hawthorne; of Emerson; of Bancroft; of Prescott. Which of these poems and works have you read?

97.—What question has been the greatest cause of trouble to our statesmen? When did the trouble begin?

98.—State whether Abraham Lincoln bore any ill-will toward the people of the South.

99. On the part of the government, was the Civil War waged for the purpose of freeing the slaves, or saving the Union?

100.—Why was the freeing of the slaves called a "war measure?"

101.—What questions were settled by the Civil War?

102.—What is meant by "Reconstruction measures?"

103.—How many constitutional amendments are there?

104.—What is meant by the expression, "Impeachment of the President?"

105.—What is meant by the "Centennial year?"

106.—What formed the western boundary of the United States when Washington became president?

107.—How many square miles did our country then contain? (*See table, page 257.*)

108.—What additions have been made to our territory since that time?

109.—How many states at the time of Washington's inauguration? How many now?

110.—What was the population of the United States in 1790? In 1890? (*See page* 296.)

111.—In 1790, what cities had over twenty thousand inhabitants?

112.—Look in your geography and find what cities now have a larger population than New York had in 1790.

113.—Where were the principal settlements in 1790? Where are they to-day?

114.—Write a list of inventions since 1800.

115.—Name the chief means by which transportation has been made rapid and easy.

116.—In how many ways are we benefited by rapid and easy transportation?

117.—Could the West have been settled without railroads?

118.—Name some of the inventions that have enabled the farmer to raise, secure, and market large crops of grain.

119.—Name some inventions that have lessened the labor of the housekeeper.

120.—Name some inventions that have helped to build up large manufacturing centers.

121.—What inventions have served to bring all parts of the world near together?

122.—What inventions have multiplied books, newspapers, and magazines?

123.—How have the people of the United States been benefited by the use of stone coal?

124.—Make a list of the great inventions that have come into general use within the last century; within the last fifty years; within the last twenty-five years.

125.—Make a list of articles used in your school-room which were not in the school-room of the olden time.

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

1492. *The West Indies discovered by Columbus.*
1497. North America discovered by the Cabots.
1498. South America discovered by Columbus.
Sebastian Cabot explored the eastern coast of North America.
Da Gama reached India by way of the Cape of Good Hope.
1512. Florida discovered by Ponce de Leon.
1513. The Pacific Ocean discovered by Balboa.
1519. Discovery of the Mississippi by Pineda.
1524. Verrazzani explored the eastern coast of the United States.
1534. The St. Lawrence discovered by Cartier.
1539. De Soto began his explorations.
1562. The Huguenots began a settlement at Port Royal.
1565. St. Augustine, Florida, settled.
1577. Voyage of Sir Francis Drake began.
1607. *Jamestown, Virginia, settled by the English.*
1608. Quebec founded by Champlain.
1609. The Hudson River discovered by Henry Hudson.
1614. New Amsterdam (New York) settled by the Dutch.
1619. Negro slavery introduced into Virginia.
1620. *The Pilgrims landed at Plymouth.*
1623. Settlement of New Hampshire at Dover and Portsmouth.
1630. Boston settled by the Massachusetts Bay Company.
1633. Settlement at Windsor, Connecticut.
1634. Maryland settled at St. Mary's.
1635. Settlement at Hartford, Connecticut.
1636. Roger Williams began the settlement of Rhode Island.
1638. Delaware settled by the Swedes.
1643. New England colonies formed a union.
1664. *New Amsterdam surrendered to the English and became New York*
1673. Joliet and Marquette reached the Mississippi.
1680. Settlement of Charleston, South Carolina.
1682. La Salle discovered the Ohio, sailed down the Mississippi.
1683. Philadelphia founded by Wm. Penn.
1689. King William's War began in America.
1702. Queen Anne's War began in America.
1732. Washington was born in Virginia, February 22.
1733. Georgia settled at Savannah.
1744. King George's War began in America.
1754. The French and Indian War began.
1763. *French lose their possessions in America.*
1774. The first Continental Congress met in Philadelphia.
1775. The Revolutionary War began.
Washington was elected Commander-in-Chief.
1776. *The Declaration of Independence adopted.*
1777. Surrender of Burgoyne.
Washington's army went into winter quarters at Valley Forge.
1778. France acknowledged independence of United States.

1779. Victory of Paul Jones off the coast of England.
1780. Arnold plotted treason.
André was executed as a spy.
1781. Articles of Confederation ratified by the states.
Surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown.
1783. Treaty of Peace signed at Paris.
Washington resigned his commission.
1787. Constitution of United States adopted by convention.
1789. Constitution went into effect on the 4th of March.
Washington inaugurated President.
1791. Vermont admitted to the Union.
1792. Kentucky admitted to the Union.
The Columbia River discovered by Capt. Gray.
1793. *The cotton gin invented by Whitney.*
1796. Tennessee admitted to the Union.
1797. John Adams inaugurated President.
1799. Washington died at Mount Vernon.
1800. First meeting of Congress in Washington City.
1801. Thomas Jefferson inaugurated President.
1802. Ohio admitted to the Union.
1803. *Louisiana Territory purchased of France.*
1804. Expedition of Lewis and Clarke ascended the Missouri.
1807. *Fulton's steamboat ascended the Hudson.*
1809. James Madison inaugurated President.
1812. Louisiana admitted to the Union.
War declared against Great Britain.
Hull surrendered Detroit to the British.
1813. Perry's victory on Lake Erie.
1814. *The American power loom put in operation.*
Public buildings in Washington burned by British.
Treaty of Peace signed at Ghent.
1815. Battle of New Orleans.
1816. Indiana admitted to the Union.
1817. James Monroe inaugurated President.
Mississippi admitted to the Union.
1818. Illinois admitted to the Union.
1819. Florida purchased of Spain.
Alabama admitted to the Union.
1820. *The Missouri Compromise passed.*
Maine admitted to the Union.
1821. Missouri admitted to the Union.
1824. La Fayette revisited the United States.
1825. John Q. Adams inaugurated President.
1826. Death of John Adams and Thomas Jefferson (July 4).
1827. *First American railway opened.*
1829. Andrew Jackson inaugurated President.
1832. South Carolina adopted nullification ordinance.
1836. Arkansas admitted to the Union.
1837. Michigan admitted to the Union.
Martin Van Buren inaugurated President.
1841. William Henry Harrison inaugurated President.
John Tyler inaugurated President.
1844. *Magnetic telegraph came into use.*
1845. Florida admitted to the Union.

James K. Polk inaugurated President.
Texas admitted to the Union.
1846. Congress declared that war existed by act of Mexico.
Oregon boundary treaty with Great Britain.
Iowa admitted to the Union.
1847. City of Mexico surrendered to General Scott.
1848. *Discovery of gold in California.*
Treaty with Mexico—territory gained.
Wisconsin admitted to the Union.
1849. Zachary Taylor inaugurated President.
1850. Millard Fillmore inaugurated President.
California admitted to the Union.
1853. Franklin Pierce inaugurated President.
1854. *The Kansas-Nebraska bill passed.*
1857. James Buchanan inaugurated President.
1858. Minnesota admitted to the Union.
1859. Oregon admitted to the Union.
1860. *Secession of South Carolina.*
1861. Kansas admitted to the Union.
Southern Confederacy formed at Montgomery.
Abraham Lincoln inaugurated President.
Fort Sumter fired upon.
Battle of Bull Run.
Seizure of Mason and Slidell.
1862. Forts Henry and Donelson taken.
Battle of Shiloh, or Pittsburgh Landing.
New Orleans captured.
Seven-days' battles.
Battle of Antietam.
Battle of Murfreesboro, Tennessee.
1863. *Emancipation Proclamation of President Lincoln.*
Battle of Gettysburg, Pennsylvania.
Vicksburg, Mississippi, surrendered.
Battle of Chickamauga.
1864. Battle of the Wilderness.
Battle of Spottsylvania.
Battle between the Kearsarge and Alabama.
Battle before Atlanta.
Battle of Nashville, Tennessee.
Nevada admitted to the Union.
Sherman's March to the sea.
1865. *Lee's army surrendered.*
President Lincoln assassinated.
Jefferson Davis captured.
Andrew Johnson inaugurated President.
The Union armies disbanded.
Thirteenth Amendment ratified.
1866. Atlantic telegraph laid.
1867. Reconstruction Acts passed by Congress.
Nebraska admitted to the Union.
Alaska purchased of Russia.
1868. Fourteenth Amendment ratified.
1869. General Grant inaugurated President.
Pacific Railroad completed.

1869. *The Union restored.*
1870. Fifteenth Amendment ratified.
1871. Burning of Chicago.
1876. Centennial celebration.
Colorado admitted to the Union.
1877. Railroad strikes and other troubles.
Rutherford B. Hayes inaugurated President.
1879. Resumption of specie payment.
1880. Treaty with China.
1881. Inauguration and death of James A. Garfield.
Inauguration of Chester A. Arthur.
1883. Civil-service reform.
1885. Inauguration of Grover Cleveland.
1886. Strikes and other labor disturbances.
Earthquake at Charleston, South Carolina.
1889. Inauguration of Benjamin Harrison.
Commemoration of Washington's inauguration.
Washington, North and South Dakota, and Montana admitted.
1890. Idaho and Wyoming admitted to the Union.
1893. Inauguration of Grover Cleveland.
1896. Utah admitted to the Union.
1897. Inauguration of Wm. McKinley.
1898. War with Spain.
Naval battle of Manila Bay.
Battle before Santiago.
Naval battle of July 3.
Annexation of Hawaii.
Capture of Manila.
1899. War in the Philippines.
1900. Gold Standard Act.

GROWTH OF CHIEF CITIES.

Cities having a population of 80,000 or more, by the census of 1900.

	1790	1800	1810	1820	1830	1840	1850	1860	1870	1880	1890	1900
Albany, N. Y.	3498	5,319	9,356	12,630	24,238	33,721	50,763	62,367	69,422	90,758	94,923	94,151
Allegheny, Pa.							21,261	28,702	53,180	78,682	105,287	129,896
Atlanta, Ga.							2,572	9,554	21,789	37,409	65,533	89,872
Baltimore, Md.	13,503	26,614	46,555	62,738	80,625	134,379	169,054	212,418	267,354	332,313	434,439	508,957
Boston, Mass.	18,038	24,027	32,250	43,298	61,392	93,383	136,881	177,812	250,526	362,839	448,477	560,892
Buffalo, N. Y.			1,508	2,095	8,653	18,213	42,261	81,129	117,714	155,134	255,664	352,387
Cambridge, Mass.	2,115	2,453	2,323	3,295	6,078	8,409	15,215	26,060	39,634	52,669	70,028	91,886
Chicago, Ill.						4,479	29,963	109,260	298,977	503,185	1,099,850	1,698,575
Cincinnati, O.		750	2,540	9,644	24,831	16,338	115,436	161,044	216,239	255,139	296,908	325,902
Cleveland, O.		547	606	1,076	6,071	17,034	43,417	92,829	160,146	261,353	381,768	
Columbus, O.			1,450	2,437	6,048	17,822	18,629	31,274	51,647	88,150	125,560	
Dayton, O		383	1,000	2,950	6,067	10,977	20,081	30,473	38,678	61,220	85,333	
Denver, Col.							4,749	4,759	35,629	106,713	133,859	
Detroit, Mich.		770	1,422	2,222	9,102	21,019	45,619	79,577	116,340	205,876	285,704	
Fall River, Mass.						11,524	14,026	26,766	48,961	74,398	104,863	
Grand Rapids, Mich.						2,686	8,085	16,507	32,016	60,278	87,565	
Indianapolis, Ind.				1,924	2,692	8,034	18,611	48,244	75,056	105,436	169,164	
Jersey City, N. J.					3,072	6,856	29,226	82,546	120,722	163,003	206,433	
Kansas City, Mo.							4,118	32,260	55,785	132,716	163,752	
Los Angeles, Cal.						1,610	4,385	5,728	11,183	50,395	102,479	
Louisville, Ky.	200	359	1,357	4,012	10,352	21,210	43,194	68,033	100,753	123,758	161,129	204,731
Lowell, Mass.					6,474	20,796	33,383	36,827	40,928	59,475	77,696	94,969
Memphis, Tenn.							8,841	22,623	40,226	33,592	64,495	102,320
Milwaukee, Wis.						1,700	20,061	45,246	71,440	115,587	204,468	285,315
Minneapolis, Minn.							2,564	13,066	46,887	164,738	202,718	
Nashville, Tenn.					5,566	6,929	10,478	16,988	25,865	43,350	76,168	80,865
Newark, N. J.				6,507	10,953	17,290	38,894	71,914	105,059	136,508	181,830	246,070
New Haven, Conn.		4,049	5,772	7,147	10,180	14,890	20,345	39,267	50,840	62,882	81,298	108,027
New Orleans, La.	5,500	8,500	17,242	27,176	46,310	102,193	116,375	168,675	191,418	216,090	242,039	287,104
New York, N. Y.	33,131	60,489	96,373	123,706	203,007	312,710	515,547	805,651	942,292	1,206,299	1,515,301	3,437,202
Omaha, Neb.								1,883	16,083	30,518	140,452	102,555
Paterson, N. J.						7,596	11,334	19,588	33,579	51,031	78,347	105,171
Philadelphia, Pa.	42,520	70,287	96,664	108,116	167,188	258,037	340,045	562,529	674,022	847,170	1,046,964	1,293,697
Pittsburgh, Pa.		1,565	4,768	7,248	12,542	21,115	46,601	49,217	86,076	156,389	238,617	321,616
Portland, Ore.							821	2,874	8,293	17,577	46,385	90,426
Providence, R. I.	6,380	7,614	10,071	11,767	16,832	23,171	41,513	50,666	68,904	104,857	132,146	175,597
Richmond, Va.	3,761	5,537	9,735	12,046	16,060	20,153	27,570	37,910	51,038	63,600	81,388	85,050
Rochester, N. Y.				1,502	9,269	20,191	36,403	48,204	62,386	89,366	133,896	162,608
Scranton, Pa.								9,223	35,092	45,850	75,215	102,026
St. Joseph, Mo.								8,932	19,565	32,431	52,324	102,979
St. Louis, Mo.			1,600	4,598	5,852	16,469	77,860	160,773	310,864	350,518	451,770	575,238
St. Paul, Minn.							1,338	10,401	20,030	41,473	133,156	163,065
San Francisco, Cal.						500	34,776	56,802	149,473	233,959	298,997	342,782
Seattle, Wash.									1,107	3,533	42,837	80,671
Syracuse, N. Y.				1,814	6,929	11,014	22,271	28,119	43,051	51,792	88,143	108,374
Toledo, O.						1,222	3,829	13,768	31,584	50,137	81,434	131,822
Washington, D. C.		3,210	8,208	13,247	18,827	23,364	40,001	61,122	109,199	147,293	230,392	278,718
Worcester, Mass.		2,095	2,577	2,969	4,172	7,497	17,049	24,960	41,105	58,291	84,655	118,421

GROWTH OF THE STATES.

UNITED STATES CENSUS REPORTS, 1790—1900.

		1790.	1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.
1.	Alabama				127,901	309,527
2.	Arkansas				14,255	30,388
3.	California					
4.	Colorado					
5.	Connecticut	237,946	251,002	261,942	275,148	297,675
6.	Delaware	59,096	64,273	72,674	72,749	76,748
7.	Florida					34,730
8.	Georgia	82,548	162,686	252,433	340,985	516,823
9.	Idaho					
10.	Illinois			12,282	55,162	157,445
11.	Indiana		5,641	24,520	147,178	343,031
12.	Iowa					
13.	Kansas					
14.	Kentucky	73,677	220,955	406,511	564,135	687,917
15.	Louisiana			76,556	152,923	215,739
16.	Maine	96,540	151,719	228,705	298,269	399,455
17.	Maryland	319,728	341,548	380,546	407,350	447,040
18.	Massachusetts	378,787	422,845	472,040	523,159	610,408
19.	Michigan			4,762	8,765	31,639
20.	Minnesota					
21.	Mississippi		8,850	40,352	75,448	136,621
22.	Missouri			20,845	66,557	140,455
23.	Montana					
24.	Nebraska					
25.	Nevada					
26.	New Hampshire	141,885	183,858	214,460	244,022	269,328
27.	New Jersey	184,139	211,149	245,562	277,426	320,823
28.	New York	340,120	589,051	959,049	1,372,111	1,918,608
29.	North Carolina	393,751	478,103	555,500	638,829	737,987
30.	North Dakota					
31.	Ohio		45,365	230,760	581,295	937,903
32.	Oregon					
33.	Pennsylvania	434,373	602,365	810,091	1,047,507	1,348,233
34.	Rhode Island	68,825	69,122	76,931	83,015	97,190
35.	South Carolina	249,073	345,591	415,115	502,741	581,185
36.	South Dakota					
37.	Tennessee	35,691	105,602	261,727	422,771	681,904
38.	Texas					
39.	Vermont	85,425	154,465	217,895	235,966	280,652
40.	Virginia	747,610	880,200	974,600	1,065,116	1,211,405
41.	Washington					
42.	West Virginia					
43.	Wisconsin					
44.	Wyoming					
45.	Utah					
District of Columbia			14,093	24,023	33,039	39,834
Organized Territories						
Total Population		3,929,214	5,308,483	7,239,881	9,633,822	12,866,020

GROWTH OF THE STATES.

UNITED STATES CENSUS REPORTS, 1790—1900.

1840.	1850.	1860.	1870.	1880.	1890.	1900.
590,756	771,623	964,201	996,992	1,262,505	1,513,017	1,828,697
97,574	209,897	435,450	484,471	802,525	1,128,179	1,311,564
.....	92,597	379,994	560,247	864,694	1,208,130	1,485,053
.....	.....	34,277	39,864	194,327	412,198	539,700
309,978	370,742	460,147	537,454	622,700	746,258	908,355
78,085	91,532	112,216	125,015	146,603	168,493	184,735
54,477	87,445	140,424	187,748	269,493	391,422	528,542
691,392	906,185	1,057,286	1,184,109	1,542,180	1,837,353	2,216,331
.....	.....	.....	 14,999	32,610	84,385	161,772
476,183	851,470	1,711,951	2,539,891	3,077,871	3,826,351	4,821,550
685,866	988,416	1,350,428	1,680,637	1,978,301	2,192,404	2,516,462
43,112	192,214	674,913	1,194,020	1,624,615	1,911,896	2,231,853
.....	.....	107,206	364,399	996,096	1,427,096	1,470,495
779,828	982,405	1,155,684	1,321,011	1,648,690	1,858,635	2,147,174
352,411	517,762	708,002	726,915	939,946	1,118,587	1,381,625
501,793	583,169	628,279	626,915	648,936	661,086	694,466
470,019	583,034	687,049	780,894	934,943	1,042,390	1,190,050
737,699	994,514	1,231,960	1,457,351	1,783,085	2,238,943	2,805,346
212,267	397,654	749,013	1,184,059	1,636,937	2,093,889	2,420,982
.....	6,077	172,023	439,706	780,773	1,301,826	1,751,394
375,651	606,526	791,305	827,922	1,131,597	1,289,600	1,551,270
383,702	682,044	1,182,012	1,721,295	2,168,380	2,679,184	3,106,665
.....	.....	.....	20,595	39,159	132,159	243,329
.....	.....	28,841	122,993	452,402	1,058,910	1,068,539
.....	.....	6,857	42,491	62,266	45,761	42,335
284,574	317,976	326,073	318,300	346,991	376,530	411,588
373,306	489,555	672,035	906,096	1,131,116	1,444,933	1,883,669
2,428,921	3,097,394	3,880,735	4,382,759	5,082,871	5,997,853	7,268,012
753,419	869,039	992,622	1,071,361	1,399,750	1,617,947	1,893,810
.....	.....	★	1,970	37,201	182,719	319,146
1,519,467	1,980,329	2,339,511	2,665,260	3,198,062	3,672,316	4,157,545
.....	13,294	52,465	90,923	174,768	313,767	413,536
1,724,033	2,311,786	2,906,215	3,521,951	4,282,891	5,258,014	6,302,115
108,830	147,545	174,620	217,353	276,531	345,506	428,556
594,398	668,507	703,708	705,606	995,577	1,151,149	1,340,316
.....	.....	★	9,585	79,976	328,808	401,570
829,210	1,002,717	1,109,801	1,258,520	1,542,359	1,767,518	2,020,616
.....	212,592	604,215	818,579	1,591,749	2,235,523	3,048,710
291,948	314,120	315,098	330,551	332,286	332,422	343,641
1,239,797	1,421,661	1,596,318	1,225,163	1,512,565	1,655,980	1,854,184
.....	.....	11,594	23,955	75,116	349,390	518,103
.....	.....	.....	442,014	618,457	762,794	958,800
30,945	305,391	775,881	1,054,670	1,315,497	1,686,880	2,069,042
.....	.....	.....	 9,118	20,789	60,705	92,531
.....	11,380	40,273	86,786	143,963	207,905	276,749
43,712	51,687	75,080	131,700	177,624	230,392	278,718
.....	61,547	93,516	101,532	160,005	275,047	870,487
17,069,453	23,191,876	31,443,321	38,558,371	50,155,783	62,622,250	75,759,728

★ Combined population of North Dakota and South Dakota in 1860, 4,837.

INDEX.

Acadians, removal of, 95.
Adams, Samuel, 102, 103, 143.
Adams, John, 103, 131, 143, 146, 147, 173.
Adams, John Quincy, 166, 171, 174.
Agriculture of country, 279.
Alabama admitted, 168.
Alabama, sinking of, 240, 241.
Alabama Claims, 260.
Alaska, purchase of, 257.
Alien and Sedition Laws, 147.
Allen, Ethan, 107.
Anarchists, the, 268.
Anderson, Maj. Robert, 206, 242.
Andersonville, prison at, 248.
André, Major, 122.
Andros seized, 59, 60.
Antietam, battle of, 223, 224.
Anti-slavery, paper, societies, 178.
Appomattox, C. H., surrender at, 244.
Arkansas admitted, 182.
Arlington Heights and Alexandria occupied, 208.
Arnold, Benedict, 122.
Arthur, Chester A., 265, 266.
Articles of Confederation, 128, 129.
Atlanta taken, 236, 237.
Atlantic discoveries, map, 24.

Bacon's Rebellion, 42.
Bailey, Colonel, 235.
Baker, General, 212.
Balboa, 20.
Ball's Bluff, 212.
Baltimore, Lord, 78, 79.
Baltimore, city of, 159, 208.
Bancroft, George, 181.
Banks, General N. P., 233, 235.
Bank, the United States, 143, 176, 183.
Barbary States, 142, 148.
Barber, James, 161.
Barclay, Robert, 73.
Bates, Almena, 251.
Beauregard, General, 206, 209, 217.
Bee, General, 228.
Bell, John, 200.
Bemis Heights, 115.
Bennington, Vt., battle of, 115.
Berkeley, Sir William, 42.
Berkeley, Lord John, 71.
Bickerdyke, Mary A., 252
Big Bethel, engagement at, 209
Biorn (*be ern'*), 9, 10.
Birney, James G., 187.
Black Hawk, Chief, 178.
Blaine, James G., 267.
Block, Adrian, 57.
Blockade of Southern ports, 208, 213
Body of Liberties, 59.
Boone, Daniel, 165.
Booth, John Wilkes, 244.
Boston, settlement at, 53; massacre, 102; Tea Party, 103; Port Bill, 103.
Boundaries of United States, northern, 189; southern, 191.
Braddock's expedition, 95, 96.
Bragg, General, 225, 233, 236.
Brandywine, battle of, 117.
Breckenridge, John C., 199.
Brewster, Elder, 54.
Brown, John, 197, 198.
Brooklyn bridge completed, 266.
Bryan, Thomas B., 228.
Bryant, William C., 181.
Buchanan, James, 197, 202, 205.
Buell, General D. C., 217, 225.
Buena Vista, battle of, 191.
Bull Run, battles of, 209, 210, 223.
Bunker Hill, battle of, 107, 108; monument, 170.
Burgoyne, invasion of, 114, 115; surrender, 116.
Burnside's fleet, cut, 218.
Burnside, General, 219, 224, 228.
Burr, Aaron, 142.
Business failures, 184, 261.
Butler, General, 219, 239, 267.
Byllinge, Edward, 71.

Cabinet, the first, 141.
Cabrillo, 25,
Cabots, John and Sebastian, 18, 19, 20, 34.
Calhoun, John C., 162, 175, 176, 184, 187.
California ceded to United States, 191; gold, 192.
Calvert, Leonard, 78, 79.
Cameron, Simon, 251.
Camden, battle of, 121.
Carolinas, settlement of, great plan, 80, 81.
Carteret, Sir George, 71, 73.
Cartier, Jacques, 21, 34.
Cartwright, Rev. Mr., 161.
Carver, John, 53.
Cass, Lewis, 194.
Cassimere, first web of, 161.
Census, 199, 140, 278; tables, 295-297.
Centennial Exposition, 261, 262.
Cemetery, National, at Gettysburg, 229, 232.
Cerro Gordo, battle of, 191.
Charter Oak, 60.
Charleston, S. C., 81, 121, 234, 242, 243.
Chancellorsville, campaign of, 228.
Champlain, his explorations, 86.
Charles I., King of England, 55, 78.
Charles II., King of England, 42, 48, 59, 74, 80.
Charles IX., King, 34.
Chase, Salmon P., 264.
Chesapeake, American frigate, 157.
Chickamauga, battle of, 233.

Chicago fire, 260; riot, 263, 268.
Chinese labor, 264; exclusion, 273.
Christian and Sanitary Commissions, 227, 249, 251.
Churubusco, battle of, 191.
Civil War, 206–244; what it decided, cost of, 246.
Civil Service Reform, 266.
Clarke, William, 151.
Clay, Henry, 168, 169, 175, 183, 187, 194.
Clayborne, trouble with, 78, 79.
Cleveland, Grover, 267, 270, 275.
Cliff-Dwellers, 31.
Clinton, Sir Henry, 119-122, 124.
Clinton, De Witt, 172.
Coal, discovery, use, 181, 182.
Cold Harbor, battle of, 238, 239.
Colfax, Schuyler, 259.
Colleges, William and Mary, 43; Columbia, 49; Harvard, 68; Yale, 68.
Colonies, French, 34, 85, 86; Spanish, 35; English, 35–46, 52–61, 71–75, 78, 79, 80-84; Dutch, 46–49; Swedish, 77.
Colonies, union of, 90, 94.
Columbian Exposition, 272.
Columbus, Christopher, 11–17; cut, 16.
Commercial trouble after Revolution, 152.
Compromises, 168, 175, 194.
Conemaugh disaster, 272.
Confederation, articles of, 128, 129.
Confederate States, 201; flag of, 208.
Concord, Mass., 106.
Connecticut, settlement of, 57–60.
Constitution of United States, framing of, 130; powers of government under it, 131; amendments to, 147, 256, 260.
Constitution, "Old Ironsides," fight with Guerriere (*geh re air*), 155.
Continental Congress, the first, 103, 104.
Continental Currency, 127.
Cook, Captain, 97.
Cooper, James Fenimore, 181.
Cooper, Peter, 262.
Cornwallis, Lord, 112, 121–124, 222.
Cost of Civil War, 246.
Cotton Gin, 145.
Chronological Table, 291–294.
Crown Point, 96.
Cuba, 276, 277.
Cumberland and Congress, 220.
Custer, General, 261.

Da Gama, Vasco, 19, 21.
Dana, R. H., 181.
Dakota, North, South, admitted, 274.
Daniel, William, 267.
Davis, Jefferson, 201, 207, 236, 245.
Decatur, Lieutenant, 149, 156.
Decoration Day, 254.
Deerfield, attack on, 90, 91.
De Kalb, Baron, 118, 121.
Delaware, Lord, 39, 77.
Delaware, settlement of, 77, 78
De Leon, Ponce, 20, 34.
De Monts, at Port Royal, 85.
De Soto, expedition of, 22-23.
D'Estaing, Count, 120.
Dewey, George, 277.
Discovery, Smith's boat, 38.
Disputed election of President, 262.
Dix, Dorothea L., 251.
Dorchester Heights occupied, 109.
Douglas, Stephen A., 196, 200.
Douglass, Frederick, 178, 179.
Dover, attack on, 88.
Draft riot in New York, 228.
Drake, voyage of, 23, 25.
Dred Scott Decision, 198.
Dupont, Admiral, 234.
Duquesne, Fort, 96.
Dustin, Mrs., 89.
Dutch household, cut, 50.

Early days in the South, cut, 45.
Early settlements, map, 39.
Early, General, 239, 240.
Early home of Lincoln, cut, 199.
Earthquake at Charleston, 269.
Education and Literature, 181, 283.
Eight-hour movement, 268.
Elections, troops at, 263.
Eliot, John, missionary, 62.
Elizabeth, Queen, 23, 34.
Emancipation Proclamation, 226, 227.
Embargo Act, 152.
Emerson, Ralph Waldo, 181.
Endicott, John, 55.
England, conduct of, 154, 213.
England and France, contests between, 86, 97.
English, William H., 265.
Ericson, Leif, 9.
Ericsson, Captain, 221.
Erie Canal, opening of, 172, 173.

Fair Oaks, battle of, 222.
Faneuil Hall, 102, 112.
Farragut, Admiral, 219, 241.
Federal Hall, 132.
Fenwick, John, 71.
Ferdinand and Isabella, 13, 14, 17.
Ferelo, 25.
Field Hospital, cut, 243.
Field, Cyrus W., 257.
Fillmore, Millard, 194, 198.
Finns, settlement by, 77.
Fisher's Hill, battle at, 239.
Fisheries, the, 269, 273, 275.
Fitch, John, 153.
Five Forks, battle of, 244.
Flag, our country's, 114.
Flax plant, 160.
Florida, discovered, 20; purchased, 167; admitted, 188.
Floyd, John B., 207.
Foote, Commodore, 217.
Forrest, General, 236.
Fort Pillow, massacre at, 236.
Fox, George, 72.
France, aid from, 118; trouble with, 146, 147.
Franklin, Benjamin, 94, 118, 128, 129.
Fredericksburg, battle of, 224.
Free Soil Party, 192, 194, 196.
Freedmen's Bureau, 256.
Fremont, General, 191, 197, 212, 223, 226.
French in America, 34, 85, 97.
French and Indians, 85, 88–97.
Frolic, brig, 156.
Frye, Colonel, 93.
Fulton, Robert, 152, 153.

Fugitive Slave Law, 195.

Gage, General, 105, 107.
Garfield, James A., 265.
Garner, Margaret, 195.
Garrison, William Loyd, 178, 179, 184.
Gates, General, 115, 121.
Georgia, settlement, 82; royal province, 84.
George II., King, 82, 91.
George III., King, 112.
Germantown, battle of, 117.
Gettysburg, battle of, 229; cemetery at, 229.
Ghent, treaty at, 160.
Gilbert, Sir Humphrey, 36.
Gilmore, General, 242.
Going to meeting in summer, cut, 67.
Gold, excitement in Virginia, 35, 37; discovery of in California, 192.
Goldsborough, Commodore, 220.
Goldsboro, battle of, 243.
Government, seat of, 143, 146; redeems its pledge, 264.
Grant, Ulysses S., 217, 225, 232, 236, 238, 239, 244, 259, 267.
Great Valley, settling, 163; mode of life, 165; Boone, 165; market, 165; newspaper, 165; boats, steamers, 165; Old World settlers, 165, 166.
Great Western, steamer, 167.
Great Eastern, steamer, 259.
Greeley, Horace, 261, 262.
Greene, General, 122, 123.
Guerriere, English frigate, 155.
Guilford, C. H., 123.
Guiteau, Charles J., 265.

Halleck, Fitz-Greene, 181.
Halleck, General Henry W., 212.
Hamilton, Alexander, 141–143, 176.
Hancock, General W. S., 229, 265.
Hardee, General, 243.
Harper's Ferry, 198, 207.
Harrison, William Henry, 154, 157, 186.
Harrison, Benjamin, 270, 271, 274.
Hartford, settlement at, 57.
Harvey, Cordelia A. P., 252.
Hatteras Inlet, 212.
Havana, 17.
Hawthorne, Nathaniel, 181.
Hayes, Rutherford B., 262, 263.
Hendricks, Thomas A., 267.
Henry and Donelson, forts, the capture of, 217.
Henry, Patrick, 101, 103.
Hennepin, Father, explores sources of the Mississippi, 86.
Hessians, 113.
Hoe, R. M., 193.
Hoge, Jane C., 251.
Holmes, Oliver Wendell, 181.
Hood, General J. B., 237.
Hooker, Thomas, 57.
Hooker, General Joseph E., 228, 229, 234.
Howard, General O. O., 256.
Howe, General, 109, 117, 119.
Howe, Elias, 193.
Hudson, Henry, 46, 47.
Huguenots, French, 34, 35, 48, 80.
Hull, General, 155.
Hull, Captain Isaac, 155.
Hunt, Jane, 192
Hussey, 182.
Hutchinson, Annie, 60.
Hutchinson, Thomas, 102.

Idaho admitted, 274.
Illinois admitted, 168.
Independence, Declaration of, 110; how received, 111.
Indiana admitted, 166, 168.
Indian hut, 26; babe in cradle, 28; burial ground on Mississippi, 30; families and tribes, map, 27.
Indians, name, 15; life and customs, 26; occupations, 27, 28; character, 29, in Virginia, 38, 41; in Massachusetts, 54; in New England, 62–64; in Georgia, 83; treatment of by French, 86; council with at Council Bluffs, 151.
Indian Wars: Pequod, 58; King Philip's, 63, 64; King William's, 88; Queen Anne's, 90, 91; King George's, 91; French and Indian, 92–97; Creek, 158; Seminole, 167, 178; Battle of Tippecanoe, 154; Black Hawk, 178; Sioux Massacre, 226; Modoc, 261; Sioux, 261.
Inventions: art of printing, 12; astrolabe, 12; compass, 12; cotton gin, 145; cylinder printing-press, 193; Ketchum mower, 182; Manning mower, 182; matches, 182; ocean telegraph, 257–259, 282; plows, 279; power-looms, 161; pressed glass, 280; printing-press, 68; reapers, 182; sewing machine, 193; steamboat, 152, 221; telegraph, 188; threshing machines, 182; telephone, 264.
Impeachment of President Johnson, 256.
Improvements, internal, 183.
Iowa admitted, 193.
Iroquois Indians, 26, 94.
Irving, Washington, 181.
Iuka and Corinth, battles of, 225.

Jackson, Andrew, 158, 160, 167, 174, 175, 176, 178, 182.
Jackson, General T. J., 222, 228.
Jamaica, 17.
Jamestown, settlement of, 37.
James I., King, 36, 41.
James II., King, 59.
Java, frigate, 157.
Jay, John, 141.
Jefferson, Thomas, 141, 143, 147–152, 173.
Johnson, Andrew, 242, 255, 256.
Johnston, General A. S., 217.
Johnston, General Joseph E., 222, 232, 236, 243.
Joliet reaches the Mississippi, 86.
Jones, Paul, commander of "Bon Homme Richard," 120, 121.

Kansas-Nebraska Bill, 196.
Kansas, civil war in, 197; admitted, 202.
Kearsarge, U. S., ship, 241.
Kearney, Stephen W., 190, 191.
Kentucky admitted, 143.

Ketcham mower, 182.
Key, Francis S., 159.
Kieft, 47, 48.
King Philip's War, 63, 64.
King, Rufus, 166.
Knox, General Henry, 141.
Koscinsko, Thaddeus, 118.

Labor organizations, 268; wages, 280, 281.
Labrabor, discovery of by Cabot, 18, 19.
La Fayette, 118, 124; his visit, 170.
La Salle discovered the Ohio, 86.
Lawrence, Captain, 157.
Lee, General Charles, treachery of, 119, 120.
Lee, General Robert E., 222–224 228, 229, 238, 239, 244.
Leif the Lucky, 9, 10.
Lewis, Merriwether, 151, 189.
Lexington, battle of, 105, 106.
Liberty Bell, the, 111.
Liberty Party, 187.
Life in early days, Virginia, 43–45; New Amsterdam, 49–51; New England, 66-70; In the New Republic, 135–140.
Lincoln, Abraham, 199, 200, 204–8. 226, 227, 228, 229, 232, 242, 244, 245.
Livermore, Mary A., 251.
Logan, John A., 267.
London and Plymouth companies, 36.
Long Island, battle of, 112; Washington's retreat from, 112.
Longfellow, Henry W., 181.
Lookout Mountain, battle of, 234.
Louisburg captured and restored, 91, 9
Louisiana Purchase, 149.
Louisiana admitted, 166.
Lovejoy, Rev. Elijah P., 185.
Lowell, Francis Cabot, 161.
Lyon, General Nathaniel, 212.

Macdonough, Commodore, 158.
Macedonian, British frigate, 156.
McCormick, Cyrus H., 182.
McDowell, Irvin, 209, 222.
McClellan, General, 209, 221–224, 242.
McClintock' Mary Ann, 192,
McKinley, William, 272, 276.
Madison, James, 153, 154.
Magellan, voyage of, 21.
Maine a part of Mass., 57; admitted, 168.
Mann, Horace, 181, 195.
Manning, inventor, 182.
Manufactures of country, 279, 280.
Mariner's compass, 12.
Marion, General, "Swamp Fox," 121.
Marquette reaches the Mississippi, 86.
Mary, Queen of England, 19.
Maryland, settlement of, 78.
Mason and Slidell, capture of, 215.
Massachusetts, settlement of, 52–57.
Massachusetts Bay Colony, 55.
Massasoit, 54, 63.
Matches, friction, 182.
Mayflower, sailing of the, 52.
Meade, General George G., 229, 236, 238.
Menendez, 35.
Merrimac and Monitor, battle between, 220, 221.
Mexico, war with, boundary question, 189; Palo Alto, 189; Monterey and Resaca de la Palma, 190; Taylor's campaign, 190, 191; New Mexico and California taken, 191; Scott's campaign, 191; surrender, 191; results, 191, 192.
Mexican War, map illustrating, 190.
Michigan admitted, 182.
Minnesota admitted, 202.
Minuet, Peter, 47.
Minute Men, 104–106.
Missionary Ridge, battle of, 234.
Mississippi River, discovery of, 23; opened, 233.
Mississippi admitted, 168; restored, 259.
Missouri Compromise, 168.
Missouri admitted, 168; war in, 212.
Mobile, capture of, 241.
Modes of Travel, cut, 164.
Monmouth, battle of, 119.
Monroe, James, 166–169; Monroe Doctrine, 169.
Montana admitted, 274.
Montcalm, General, 97.
Monterey, battle of, 190.
Moody, Paul, 161.
Mormons, 177.
Morris, Robert, 113.
Morse, Samuel, F. B., 188.
Mott, Lucretia, 192.
Mound-builders, 31–33
Mounds at Marietta, Ohio, cut, 32.
Mt. Vernon, 125, 130, 131, 145.
Movements of Armies in South and West, map, 216.
Movements of Army of Potomac, map, 214.
Murfreesboro, battle of, 225.

Napoleon, Emperor, 147, 149.
Nashville, battle of, 237.
National Road, opening of, 163.
National Cemeteries, 253, 254.
Navigation Acts, 99, 100.
Nebraska admitted, 257.
Nevada admitted, 245.
New Amsterdam, life in 49; dwellings, furniture, 49; dress, 51; school-masters, ministers, 51.
New England, coming of Pilgrims, 52, 53; government, 53; winter, 53, 54; first crop, 54; treaty, 54; wealth, 55; colonies, 55–59; Puritans, 56; Pilgrims and Puritans unite, 56; Maine a part of Massachusetts, 57; Pequods, 58; Royal Province, 59; Connecticut, 57; Rhode Island, Andros, Providence, religion, 60; New Hampshire, Vermont, 61; Indians, 62–64; witchcraft, 64, 65; treatment of wrong-doers, 66; meeting-houses, church-going, 66; schools, 67; printing-press, homes, 68; dress, training, occupations, 69; amusements, traveling, slavery, 70.
New Hampshire, settlement of, 61.
New Haven Colony, 58, 59.
New Jersey, 71–73.
Newfoundland discovered, 19.
New Mexico ceded to United States, 191.
New Orleans, 97; captures of, 160, 219, 233.
New Republic and its people:
Population and territory, cities, 135;

travel, 135; farm life, 136; mails and newspapers, schools, lights and fuel, dress, 138.
New Sweden, 77.
Newspapers, 68, 138, 165, 178, 181, 284.
New York, settlement of, 46–51.
Nina, one of Columbus' vessels, 14.
Northmen, legend of, 9–10.
Northwest Territory, 163.

Occum, Samson, Indian Whitefield, 62.
Ocean telegraph, 257–259.
Oceans Joined by Rail, 259, 260.
Oglethorpe, James, 82–84.
Ohio admitted, 153.
Oklahoma, 271.
Old Ironsides, 155; poetry, 156.
Omnibus bill (Compromise of 1850), 194.
Opening Erie Canal, cut, 172.
Orchard Knob, capture of, 234.
Ordinance of 1787, 163.
Oregon admitted, 202.
Orleans, steamer, 165.
Osceola, Chief, 178.
Otis, James, 101.

Pacific Ocean discovered, 20.
Pacific Coast explored, 25.
Packenham, General, 160.
Palo Alto, battle of, 189.
Panic of 1837, 184.
Panic of 1893, 275.
Parris, Reverend, 64, 65.
Paris, treaty of, 97, 125.
Patroons, 47.
Peale, Angelice, 132.
Pemberton, General, 232, 233.
Peninsular Campaign, 221.
Penn, William, 72, 75, 76.
Pennsylvania, 74, 75.
Pendleton, George H., 242.
Pequod War, 58.
Perry, Oliver H., 157.
Perry, Matthew C., 191.
Perryville, battle of, 223.
Petersburg, siege of, 239, 244.
Philadelphia founded, 75.
Philadelphia, U. S. frigate, 149.
Philanthropic and reform work, 284.
Phillips, John D., 182.
Phillips, Wendell, 178, 179, 195.
Philip, King, 63, 64.
Pickens, Colonel, 121.
Pickett, General, 229; cut, 230, 231.
Pierce, Franklin, 196.
Pilgrims, coming of, 52–55.
Pineda, Alonzo de, discovers Miss. R., 23.
Pinta, one of Columbus' vessels, 14, 15.
Pinzon brothers, 14.
Pitcher, Molly, 120.
Pitt, William, 96.
Plan of war in 1862, 215; 1864, 236.
Pocahontas, 38.
Poe, Edgar Allan, 181.
Polk, James K., 187, 189.
Pope, General, 223.
Porto Rico, 17, 277.
Port Royal, Huguenots at, 34
Port Royal Entrance, forts at, 212.
Porter, Commodore, 225, 235.
Post-offices, 282.
Powderly, Terrence V., 269.
Power-loom, invention of, 161, 167.
Powhatan, Chief, 38.
Prescott, William H., 181.
Prescott, Colonel, 107.
President, first, 131, 132.
Princeton, battle of, 113, 114.
Printing, art of, 12; first press, 68; others, 193.
Pritchard, Colonel, captures Davis, 245.
Proclamations of President Johnson, 255.
Providence, settlement of, 60.
Public Debt, 247.
Pueblo, or Village Indians, 31.
Pulaski, Count, 118, 120.
Puritans, 56, 57, 58, 60, 63, 67.
Purmount, Philemon, 67.
Putnam, General, 107.

Quakers, 44, 57, 60, 71–5.
Quebec, founded, 86; attacks on, 90, 96, 97.
Questions to be settled after Civil War, 255.
Quincy, Mass., first railroad from, 173.

Railroad, the first, and what the people thought, 173; connecting two oceans, 259; riots, 263, 266.
Raleigh, Sir Walter, 35.
Raleigh, N. C., entered by Federal army, 243.
Randolph, Edmund, 141.
Rapidan, battle of, 238.
Reconstruction Measures, 256.
Red Eagle, Chief, 158.
Red River Expedition, 235.
Resaca de la Palma, battle of, 189.
Resources of Country, 278.
Revere, Paul, his ride, 105, 127.
Revolutionary War, causes of, 99–104, 105–125; map illustrating, 106.
Rhode Island, settlement of, 60.
Rice plant introduced, 81.
Richmond, capture of, 244.
Rochambeau, Count, 123, 124.
Rosecrans, General, 209, 225, 233.
Rum imported into Georgia, 83.
Rumsey, James, 153.

Safford, Mary J., 252.
St. Augustine, 35.
St. John, John P., 267.
Salem Witchcraft, 64, 65.
Samoset, Chief, 54.
San Juan d' Ulloa, 191.
Santa Anna, General, 190, 191.
San Salvador, 15.
Santa Maria, one of Columbus' vessels, 14.
Sarapis, British frigate, 121.
Savannah, first steamer to cross Atlantic, 167.
Savannah, capture of, 120, 237.
Sault Ste. Marie, 86.
Schenectady destroyed, 88.
Schofield, General, 243.
Schools, 43, 49, 62, 67; first girls', 75, 84; normal, 181.
Scott, Winfield, 158, 175, 190, 206, 209.
Seal fisheries, 273, 275.
Secession of Southern States, map, 201.

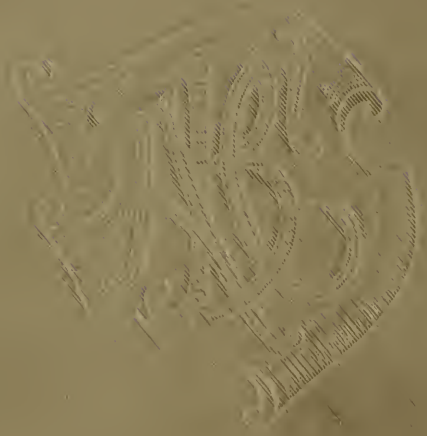
Seminole Indians, 167, 178.
Semmes, Captain Raphael, 241.
Seven days' battles, 223.
Sewall, Judge, 65.
Seward, William H., 257.
Seymour, Horatio, 259.
Shannon, British frigate, 157.
Shays, Daniel, 128.
Shenandoah, cruiser, 241.
Sheridan, Philip H., 239, 244.
Sherman, General W. T., 225, 233, 236, 237, 242, 243.
Shields, General, 223.
Shiloh, battle of, 217, 219.
Silver Bill, 273, 275.
Sinking of Alabama, cut, 240.
Sioux Massacre, 226.
Sirius, steamer, 167.
Slavery, introduction of, 40; in New England, 70; in Carolina, 81; in Georgia, 83; in 1790, 139, 140; Jefferson's idea of, 149, 152; Ordinance of 1787, 163; demand for slaves to work in cotton, 167; feeling in North, 168; Missouri Compromise, 168; slave dealers, 168; anti-slavery paper, 178; mob spirit, 184, 185; right of petition denied, 185; Texas, Liberty party, 187; Wilmot Proviso, Free Soil party, 192; Compromise of 1850, 194; Fugitive Slave Law, underground R. R., 195; Kansas-Nebraska Bill, 196; Dred Scott decision; John Brown, 198; Emancipation Proclamations, 225–227; abolished, 255, 256.
Smith, Captain John, 37, 38.
Smith, Joseph, leader of Mormons, 177.
Soldier's Psalm of Woman, poem, 252.
Spain, war with, 276, 277.
Spottsylvania, battle of, 238.
Squatter Sovereignty, 196.
Soldiers in prison, 248.
Stamp Act, 101.
Standard time, 266.
Standish, Miles, 53; sword, pot, platter, 54.
Stanton, Elizabeth Cady, 192.
Stanton, Edwin M., 251, 257.
Stark, General, 107; at Bennington, Vt., 115.
Starving time, 38.
State Rights, 175.
States at close of Revolutionary War, claims, map, 136.
States return to the Union, 256.
Steamboat, the first, 152, 153; first to cross Atlantic, 167.
Steele, John, 57.
Stephens, Uriah S., 268.
Stephens, Alexander H., 201.
Steuben, Baron, 118, 119.
Stony Point, 120.
Stowe, Harriet Beecher, 195.
Stockton, Commodore, 191.
Stuyvesant, Peter, 48, 78.
Sullivan, General, 26.
Sumner, Charles, 195.
Sumter, General, 121.
Sumter, fort, firing on, 206, 242.
Sutter, Captain, 192.
Swedes, settlement by, 77.
Taney, Judge, 198.
Tappan, Lewis, 185.
Tariff, 162, 169, 269, 270, 272, 275, 276.
Tarleton, General, 122.
Taylor, General Zachary, 189, 190, 194.
Tea, tax on, 102.
Tecumseh, Chief, 154, 157, 158.
Telegraph, invention of, 188.
Telephone, invention of, 264.
Temperance societies, 173, 174.
Tennessee admitted, 143.
Terry, General, 243.
Territorial acquisitions, map, 150; statement of, 257; growth, 278.
Test questions and exercises, 287–290.
Texas, annexation of, 187; admitted, 193; restored, 259.
Thomas, General George H., 233, 234, 237.
Ticonderoga, 96, 107, 108, 115.
Tilden, Samuel J., 262.
Tippecanoe, battle of, 154.
Tobacco, cultivation of, 40, 78.
Topics for review, 98, 126, 203, 285.
Tories, 122.
Transportation, 281.
Travel, modes of, 282; cut, 164.
Trent, English steamer, 215.
Trenton, N. J., battle of, 112, 113.
Tripoli, war with, 148, 149.
Tyler, John, 186, 187.

"Uncle Tom's Cabin," 195.
Underground Railroad, 195, 196.
Union refugees, cut of, 247; nurses, 251.
United States, frigate, 156.
United States Bank, 143, 176, 183.
Utah admitted, 276.

Valley Forge, 117, 118.
Van Buren, Martin, 183, 184, 192.
Vera Cruz, battle of, 191.
Vermont, 61; admitted, 143.
Verrazzani, voyage of, 21, 34.
Vespucci, Amerigo, 19, 20.
Vicksburg, capture of, 232.
Vinland, 10.
Virginia, original extent, settlement, 36; Jamestown founded, 37; Smith, 37, 38; starving time, 38, 39; tobacco—as money, slavery, Indians, 40; Royal Province, 41; Bacon, 42; homes, schools, 43; sports, travel, religion, 44; dress, ceremony, 45, 46; government, 39, 41; restored to the Union after Civil War, 259.

Walker, John, 182.
Ward, Nathaniel, 59.
Ward, General, 107.
War of 1812, map illustrating, 155; causes of, 154; Hull's surrender, 155; victories on ocean, 155, 156; privateers, 156; Perry's victory, 157; battle of Thames, 157, 158; Creeks, Lundy's Lane, Lake Champlain, 158, 159; Washington in hands of English, Baltimore attacked, 159; New Orleans, 160; peace, effects, 160.
Warren, General Joseph, 108.
Warren, General G. K., 244.
Washington admitted, 274.

Washington, George, life, 130; mission, 92, 93, 103; commander-in-chief, 108; at Boston, 109; at Long Island, 112; at Trenton, 112; seeks aid, 113; at Princeton, 113, 114; at Brandywine, at Germantown, at Valley Forge, 117; at Monmouth, 119; at Yorktown, 124; end of war, 125; return to Mt. Vernon, 125; in constitutional convention, 130; journey, inauguration, 131–133; full-page cut of, 134, 144; administration, 140–145; living, style of, 143; death 145; one hundredth anniversary of inauguration, 271; monument, 266.
Washington, Martha, cut, 132; sketch, 133.
Washington, D. C., in hands of English, 159.
Wasp, American sloop-of-war, 156.
Wayne, General, "Mad Anthony," 120.
Webster, Noah, 181.
Webster, Daniel, 183, 184, 195.
Wesley, John and Charles, 83.
West Virginia saved to Union, 209; admitted, 245.
West, A. M., 267.
Wethersfield, Conn., 58.
Whitefield, George, 83, 84.
Whitney, Eli, 145, 167.
Whittier, John G., 179, 181.
Wilderness, battle of, 238.
Wilkes, Captain, 215.
William III., 88.
Williams, Roger, 56, 58, 60.
Williams, John, 91.
Williamsburg, battle of, 222.
Wilmot Proviso, 192.
Wilson's Creek, battle of, 212.
Wilson, Henry, 261.
Winchester, battle of, 239.
Winslow, Captain, 241.
Winthrop, John, 55.
Winthrop, John, Jr., 59.
Wisconsin admitted, 193.
Wolfe, General, 96, 97.
Woman's rights convention, 192.
Women of the South, 253.
Worden, Lieutenant, 221.
Wright, Martha C., 192.
Writers, American, 180, 181.
Writs of Assistance, 99, 100.
Wyoming admitted, 274.

York, Duke of, 48, 61, 72, 78.
Yorktown, siege of, 123, 124, 222.
Young, Brigham, Mormon Leader, 177.

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